DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 103 284 SO 007 962

AUTHOR	Superka, Douglas P.; Johnson, Patricia L.
TITLE	Values Education: Approaches and Materials.
INSTITUTION	ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, Boulder, Colo.; Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., Boulder, Colo.
SPONS AGENCY	National Inst. of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	75
NOTE	164p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 855 Broadway, Boulder, Colorado 80302 (SSEC #176, $5.00)
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.76 HC-$8.24 PLUS POSTAGE
DESCRIPTORS	*Annotated Bibliographies; Bibliographies; Classification; Curriculum Development; *Curriculum Evaluation; Education; Elementary Secondary Education; Instructional Materials; Learning Activities; *Moral Development; *Social Sciences; Social Studies; Teacher Education; Teaching Techniques; Typology; *Values

ABSTRACT

The difficulty of intelligently and systematically selecting from the overwhelming curriculum and teacher background materials being produced and disseminated in values education is a problem for educators and teachers. This book focuses on alleviating the problem, making the choice easier for users of values materials. Chapter one describes a typology or classification scheme consisting of five values education approaches--inculcation, moral development, analysis, clarification, and action learning--and explains each in terms of its rationale and purpose, teaching methods and instructional model, an illustrative learning activity, and characteristic curriculum materials and programs. Chapter two presents and explains an original instrument for analyzing values education materials in terms of their descriptive characteristics, rationale and objectives, preconditions and usability, content, procedures and activities, and evaluation. Educators can use this multiple-choice/short-answer framework to obtain in-depth analyses of values education materials. Summaries of analyses of 13 sets of materials are included, each reflecting one of the five values education approaches. The third and final chapter is an extensive, mostly annotated bibliography of over 200 student curriculum materials, teacher guides, and theoretical background materials in values education available through commercial publishers and/or the ERIC system, and classified according to the approach they primarily reflect. (Author/JR)

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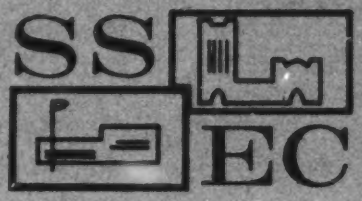

A Joint Publication

VALUES EDUCATION:
APPROACHES AND MATERIALS

by

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The material in this publication was prepared pursuant to a contract with the National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors undertaking such projects under government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their judgment in professional and technical matters. Prior to publication, the manuscript was submitted to the National Council for the Social Studies for critical review and determination of professional competence. Points of view or opinions, however, do not necessarily represent the official view or opinions of either the National Council for the Social Studies or the National Institute of Education.

ORDERING INFORMATION

This publication is available from:

Social Science Education Consortium, Inc.
855 Broadway
Boulder, Colorado 80302
(ORDER SSEC PUBLICATION NO. 176)

It is also listed in *Resources in Education* and can be obtained in microfiche and hard copy from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service, identified as SO 007 962. See *Resources in Education* for ordering information and ED number.

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FOREWORD

A general objective of the publications program of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Social Studies/Social Science Education and the Social Science Education Consortium is to provide educators with easy to use resources that can help them solve problems related to social studies/social science education. In the past few years there has been a recurrent demand for organized and integrated information on values education. This paper meets that demand.

In the paper, Superka and Johnson have developed a classification scheme for five approaches to values education; they offer an instrument with illustrations for analyzing values education materials; and they present an extensive annotated bibliography of a variety of resources for values education. This volume and a forthcoming companion volume, "A Critical Analysis of Values Education Resources," to be published in late 1975 will be useful resources for all educators.

James E. Davis
Associate Director, ERIC/ChESS
Associate Director, SSEC

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PREFACE

Values education is currently one of the most exciting and explosive new developments in education. Although educators have not completely neglected this area in previous decades, there has been in the last several years a spectacular upsurge of interest in and emphasis on "values" and "valuing" in education. This increased interest and activity has affected the entire educational spectrum from elementary to graduate school.

Values education has attracted the interest and involvement not only of teachers and students, but also of psychologists, social psychologists, sociologists, philosophers, and political scientists. Their ideas have been communicated through books, articles, newsletters, films, workshops, conferences, inservice programs, education courses, and informal conversations. A wide variety of materials, including films, filmstrips, records, tapes, handbooks, storybooks, mini-courses, and entire curricula have been produced and distributed for the explicit purpose of facilitating the teaching of values and valuing.

Several interrelated problems have, however, persisted or developed in the midst of this frantic, wide-ranging activity. The major problems include (1) the confusion and conflict about the meaning of the key terms used in values education--*values* and *valuing*; (2) lingering doubt on the part of many teachers, administrators, and parents concerning the role of the school in teaching values; (3) classroom norms among the students that discourage open, trusting value activity; (4) uncertainty of teachers as to how self-disclosing, probing, and accepting they should be; (5) a generally inadequate level of teacher training in values education; (6) a tremendous influx into the values education movement of relatively inexperienced persons as conductors of workshops and developers of materials; (7) a lack of reliable, valid, and usable evaluation procedures and instruments to measure values development in students; and (8) the difficulty of intelligently and systematically selecting from the overwhelming amount of curriculum and teacher background materials being produced and disseminated.

This book will focus primarily on alleviating the last problem--the educator's difficulty in comprehending and choosing from the plethora of

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values education materials. Chapter 1 will describe a typology or classification scheme consisting of five values education approaches--inculcation, moral development, analysis, clarification, and action learning. Each of these approaches is an explicit and distinctive attempt to deal with values in the school.* Each approach will be explained in terms of its rationale and purpose, teaching methods and instructional model, an illustrative learning activity, and characteristic curriculum materials and programs. The development and use of that typology will also be discussed. Chapter 2 presents and explains an original instrument for analyzing values education materials in terms of their descriptive characteristics, rationale and objectives, preconditions and usability, content, procedures and activities, and evaluation. Educators could use this multiple-choice/short-answer framework to obtain in-depth analyses of values education materials. In addition, Chapter 2 contains summaries of analyses of 13 sets of materials, each reflecting one of the five values education approaches. This chapter concludes with an exercise designed to help educators consider certain criteria in selecting values education materials. The third and final chapter is an extensive, mostly annotated bibliography of student curriculum materials, teacher guides, and theoretical background materials in values education. The materials include more than 200 items available through commercial publishers and/or the ERIC system. They are classified according to the approach they primarily reflect. The Epilogue briefly summarizes the key points in the book and offers recommendations for future work in values education.

This volume, or at least sections of it, should be useful to several different types of educators who share a desire to improve instruction in relation to values and valuing processes. It should be especially

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*Another approach often used by teachers is to avoid dealing with values in the classroom. This approach is not discussed in this book for two reasons. First, the book is designed to help teachers who already have decided to work with values or at least are still considering working with values and value issues in school. Second, it is doubtful whether a person can really avoid dealing with values. It is our belief that values cannot be avoided, and that teachers should not attempt to avoid values in education.

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helpful to elementary and secondary methods teachers and other college professors who want to provide their education students with an overview of values education in terms of approaches, teaching procedures, and curriculum materials. Curriculum coordinators in school districts and other curriculum developers should find this book a practical resource for planning and revising educational programs and materials in the social studies, the humanities, and guidance and counseling. Finally, several sections of this publication could be helpful to teachers, particularly department chairpersons and supervisors, as an initial source of information to assist them in determining which approaches and materials best fit their particular needs, goals, and values in relation to values education.

Two issues must be confronted before proceeding with the tasks outlined above. Probably the most persistent and compelling problem in comprehending the literature on values is the widespread terminological confusion and conflict. Simply stated, there appears to be little agreement on the definitions of the terms *values* and *valuing*. In fact, most who write for periodicals do not even define the terms. Moreover, among those who do specify the meaning of those terms, there appear to be as many definitions as there are writers.

Teachers who have to confront the value issues that arise every day in school may not be concerned about the problem of defining these terms. They must deal with values regardless of what those values are called. Because this book is aimed at helping educators deal with the practical problem of teaching and learning values, we do not feel that this is the appropriate place to try to solve this definitional problem.* Nevertheless, in an effort to avoid contributing to the confusion about the meaning of terms, this problem must at least be addressed here. This will be done by briefly summarizing the various definitions of

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*For a more detailed discussion of the definitional problem with respect to values in each of the following areas, see the corresponding references: sociology--Adler (1956); psychology--Dukes (1955) and Tisdale (1961); behavioral sciences--Handy (1969); educational psychology--Trow (1953); social studies education--Bond (1970); philosophy--Lepley (1949); philosophy and theology--Appendix in Canning (1970).

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values and valuing that have been offered by other writers and by specifying definitions of the key terms used in this book. In order to apply to all the values education approaches, these latter definitions must necessarily be general. No claim is made that they are better than any others that have been formulated. The goal is simply to facilitate the reader's understanding of how we use these terms.

Values have been defined variously as (1) eternal ideas, (2) moral emotions, (3) standards of worth, (4) beliefs about goodness or worth, and (5) behavioral actions. Generally, most of these and other definitions incorporate the notion of values as criteria for determining levels of goodness, worth, or beauty that guide the thoughts, feelings, and actions of persons. For the purposes of this work, this "criteria" definition will be most appropriate. Examples of values would then include honesty, trust, personal privacy, security, freedom, imaginativeness, and rationality.

Valuing has been defined variously as (1) the act of making value judgments, (2) the process of analyzing value questions, (3) evincing values, (4) acquiring and adhering to values, (5) the process of choosing, prizing, affirming, and acting, (6) the direct feeling of like or dislike, and (7) the process of determining the goodness or worth of phenomena. In order to apply this term to each of the values education approaches, a general definition of valuing as the process of developing or actualizing values will be used.

These two definitions are included in those below, which represent the key values education terms used in this book.

Values--criteria for determining levels of goodness, worth or beauty. (For example, if someone disliked a politician because he or she was dishonest, then that person would possess the value of honesty.)

Valuing--the process of developing or actualizing values.

Values education--the explicit attempt to teach about values and/or valuing.

Values education approach--a general orientation toward teaching about values and/or valuing.

Instructional model--a system of procedures used by teachers to facilitate the process of valuing with students.

Values education materials--student and teacher curriculum resources explicitly designed to deal with values and/or valuing.

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(Materials such as novels or films, which are heavily laden with values and value issues but which have not been developed for educational purposes, have not been considered.)*

The second issue relates to the essential nature of this work. We consider this book to be primarily an objective description and analysis of values education. No attempt is made to be prescriptive or evaluative. It is not our purpose here to recommend a particular approach or to determine the worth of a specific set of materials. Rather, it is to provide significant information and a useful framework in which to process that data, to help others make evaluative decisions. It is our belief, however, that every human endeavor, including the writing of this book, inevitably involves some basic assumptions and values. (That statement itself is, of course, an assumption.) Thus, no claim is made that this work has been produced in an assumption-free, value-free atmosphere. Rather than pretend total objectivity and thus create hidden assumptions, we choose to expose whatever assumptions we are aware of having concerning values. (This statement reveals another assumption--explicit assumptions are better than implicit ones.) Thus, four basic assumptions we hold concerning values and valuing are:

1) Individuals are continually involved in choosing, developing, and implementing their own values in real-life situations.

2) The process of valuing is mainly social. People are both influenced by and are actors in particular social contexts. These contexts tent to impose certain values at the same time that they are responsive to value change.

3) Values development is a lifelong process. It is not confined to the earliest years and fixed by childhood socialization. Rather, it involves periodic testing and restructuring of one's value system in the light of reflection and experience in a changing culture.

4) Valuing can involve both rational and nonrational ways of knowing.

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*Other publications of SSEC and ERIC/ChESS have focused on games and simulations, so we will not analyze these resources here. For information on games and simulations, see Charles and Stadsklev (1972).

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A final assumption is that *Values Education: Approaches and Materials* is a useful resource for educators interested in working with values inside and outside the schools.

Douglas P. Superka
Patricia L. Johnson

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank the following persons for making significant contributions to this publication: Irving Morrissett, for his thoughtful suggestions in the early phases of the development of the manuscript; Robert D. Barr and Jack R. Fraenkel, for their critical comments, which greatly improved the final version; Janet Jacobs, for her considerable editing and re-writing efforts during the revision stage of the work; Faith Rogers, for her careful editing of the final manuscript; Nancy Dille, for her continuing coordination of the typing; and Judy Gamble, for her speedy and accurate typing.

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Chapter 1

Approaches to Values Education

In this chapter a typology of five values education approaches is presented. These include inculcation, moral development, analysis, clarification, and action learning. Apart from the typology, two other theoretical approaches are discussed--evocation and union. These have not as yet been applied in curriculum materials and have been used only vaguely in teaching strategies. The five approaches that compose the typology are explained in terms of rationale and purpose, characteristic teaching methods, an instructional valuing model, and an illustrative learning activity. A statement on the status of each approach in relation to existing educational programs and materials is also included. The evocation and union approaches are treated in a similar fashion, but with an emphasis on rationale and methodology rather than on learning activities and materials

This chapter describes various approaches for teaching values from which a reader may choose one or more that will meet his or her instructional needs. The descriptions of each approach, however, are not comprehensive models that can readily be applied to the classroom. The typology is merely a statement of alternatives. Before implementing any one approach, a reader is advised to consult the bibliography for source material for further study and explanation.

Development of the Typology

This typology of values education approaches was initially formulated by Superka in a doctoral dissertation (1973). While reviewing the descriptive and empirical literature on values in psychology, sociology, philosophy, and education, he discovered a vast and confusing amount of data that seemed to be in need of some kind of organization. Although a few other writers had provided some guidelines, no systematic classification of values literature existed. This classification task became the theme of Superka's dissertation.

The typology was originally constructed around eight approaches. For each approach, a theory of value development was identified. From subsequent discussions with several educators, including the co-author

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of this paper, a number of conflicts and inconsistencies in the original typology were discovered. For example, curriculum materials did not exist for at least two of the value approaches. The authors have, therefore, reduced the typology to five approaches and added a separate discussion section to deal with those approaches that do not fit completely into the typological framework.

Although rigorous efforts to determine the reliability and validity of the typology were not taken, two procedures were implemented to ensure that the typology would be of use to educators. An overview of the typology was sent to ten values scholars. These included research psychologists, social psychologists, philosophers, and educators. Of the six who responded, four indicated that the categories were distinguishable from one another and that the typology could be useful. Two of the scholars did not believe that creating a classification system was practically or empirically meaningful.

The second validation procedure involved a larger number of persons in a more concrete application of the typology. In two conferences held in October 1974, 64 educators were commissioned to analyze more than 200 sets of elementary and secondary social studies materials.* Part of their task was to classify the materials according to the values education approaches presented in the typology. Once again, only a brief overview of the typology was used. Preliminary examination of those materials analyzed at the conferences indicated that the analysts could practically apply the typology and classify materials with reasonable reliability. For each set of materials there were two independent analysts; when checked against one another, the analysts demonstrated a surprisingly high rate of congruity on the values section of their evaluation. Further, when checked against other analyses of some of the materials,** the classification system proved to be reliable.

At this time there is no statistical validation of the typology. The

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*The conferences were sponsored by the Educational Products Information Exchange Institute (EPIE) and the Social Science Education Consortium (SSEC).

**For the purposes of this publication, many of the materials that were analyzed at the conferences were also classified by the authors according to values education approach. The authors' classification is presented in the annotated bibliography (Chapter 3) of this work.

authors still view the classification scheme and the concepts underlying it as working hypotheses subject to experimentation and revision. They invite critical comments from readers. The procedures described above, however, convinced the authors that the typology in its present form is a useful framework for organizing the vast mass of values education materials.

The typology could help persons interested in values education in several ways. Teachers, for example, who are interested in working with values but not certain of how to go about it, could examine each of the alternative approaches and choose the one or two that best suit their instructional styles and classroom needs. District curriculum coordinators could use it similarly to choose approaches most appropriate for school goals and needs. Once curriculum coordinators, developers, or teachers had decided which approach was best, they could concentrate their in-depth search and examination of materials on those that reflect that approach. The bibliography in this book will help educators find those resources.

Some teachers have been "turned off" about dealing with values because of one or two negative experiences with a workshop or strategy representing an approach they could not accept. The typology, therefore, could be used to help such teachers become aware of a variety of values education approaches, one of which they might judge more appropriate.

A Typology of Values Education Approaches

In this section, each of the approaches in the typology will be discussed in depth. To facilitate this discussion, an overview of the typology, briefly describing the characteristics of each approach, is presented in the chart on pages 4 and 5. Readers may want to look over this summary of the approaches before reading the narrative below.

The five values education approaches that compose the typology are inculcation, moral development, analysis, clarification, and action learning. For each approach in the typology, four aspects are considered. The first, rationale and purpose, answers a number of questions such as, What is the approach attempting to accomplish and why? and What are the reasons for using a particular approach? The rationale also

OVERVIEW OF TYPOLOGY OF VALUES EDUCATION APPROACHES

Approaches	Purposes	Methods	Materials	Developers
Inculcation	-to instill or internalize certain values in students -to change the values of students so they more nearly reflect certain desired values	modeling, positive and negative reinforcement, mocking, nagging, manipulating alternatives, providing incomplete or biased data, games and simulations, role playing, discovery learning	*Human Values Series* *Teaching Moral Values through Behavior Modification*	Blanchette *et al.* (1970) Sayre (1972)
Moral Development	-to help students develop more complex moral reasoning patterns based on a higher set of values -to urge students to discuss the reasons for their value choices and positions, not merely to share with others, but to foster change in the stages of reasoning of students	moral dilemma episodes, with the small group discussion being relatively structured and argumentative	*First Things: Values* "Teaching Strategies for Moral Dilemmas"	Kohlberg and Selman (1970) Galbraith and Jones (1974)
Analysis	-to help students use logical thinking and scientific investigation to decide value issues and questions -to help students use rational, analytical processes in interrelating and conceptualizing their values	structured rational discussion that demands the application of reasons as well as evidence, testing principles, analyzing analogous cases, debate, and research	*Public Issues Series* *Analysis of Public Issues Program* *Values Education* (41st NCSS Yearbook)	Oliver and Newmann (1967-72) Shaver and Larkins (1973) Metcalf (1971)

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Approaches	Purposes	Methods	Materials	Developers
Clarification	-to help students become aware of and identify their own values and those of others -to help students communicate openly and honestly with others about their values -to help students use both rational thinking and emotional awareness to examine their personal feelings, values, and behavior patterns	role-playing games, simulations, contrived or real value-laden situations, in-depth self-analysis exercises, sensitivity activities, out-of-class activities, small group discussion	*Decisions and Outcomes* *Values and Teaching* *Values Clarification* *Values in Action* Scholastic *Contact* Series *A Probe into Values*	Gelatt *et al.* (1973) Raths *et al.* (1966) Simon *et al.* (1972) Shaftel and Shaftel (1970) Goodykoontz (1968-74) Church (1973)
Action Learning	-those purposes listed for analysis and clarification -to provide students with opportunities for personal and social action based on their values -to encourage students to view themselves as personal-social interactive beings, not fully autonomous, but members of a community or social system	the methods listed for analysis and clarification as well as action projects within the school and community and skill practice in group organizing and interpersonal relations	*Finding Community* *Social Action* *CECH*	Jones (1971) Newmann (1972) Citizenship Education Clearinghouse, Ochoa and Johnson (under development)

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relates each approach to a specific conception of values, the valuing process, and human nature and to the ideas of various psychologists, sociologists, and philosophers.

Following the rationale statement, teaching methods are discussed, and there is an explanation of those strategies that are most appropriate for classroom implementation of the approach. An instructional model is also provided so that the reader can gain a better understanding of the systematic application of these values education procedures. An illustration of the use of one of the methods and several procedures of the model in a concrete learning situation is also provided.

Finally, for each approach there is a brief statement on the nature and quantity of existing curriculum materials that embody the approach and the status of the approach in educational programs in general.

Inculcation

Rationale and Purpose. The purpose of the inculcation approach is to instill or internalize certain desirable values. According to this approach, values are viewed as standards or rules of behavior whose source is the society or the culture. Valuing is considered to be a process of identification and socialization whereby a person, sometimes unconsciously, takes standards or norms from another person, group, or society and incorporates them into his or her own value system. Depending on the goal of the course and the orientation of the teacher, specific values that might be inculcated into students include social, personal, moral, political, or scholarly values.

Regardless of the particular values being instilled, proponents of the inculcation approach take a view of human nature in which the individual is treated, during the attempt to inculcate, as a reactor rather than as an initiator. Extreme advocates of inculcation tend to perceive society as a system whose needs and goals transcend and even define the needs and goals of individuals.* Maintenance and development are viewed as goals of society, and recruitment and replacement of people in various positions is seen as a major need. The task of values education therefore is to instill into persons those values necessary to assume efficiently

*This interpretation is closely related to the views of the sociologist Talcott Parsons (1951) and Freudian psychologists Sears *et al.* (1957) and Whiting (1961).

the roles prescribed by society.

Educators who consider an individual to be a free, self-fulfilling participant in society tend to inculcate values as well, especially values such as freedom to learn, human dignity, justice, and self-exploration. Inculcation, however, is often mistakenly associated with only a narrow concept of human nature and is often considered a negative approach. Yet, this approach is used by persons holding a variety of value positions, including those generally labeled humanistic.

A teacher, for example, may react very deeply and strongly against a student who has just uttered a racial slur to another student in the class. This could take the form of a short but emotional lecture on the evils of racism or simply an expression of disappointment in the student's behavior. At any rate, the teacher is inculcating in this situation. Perhaps this is because he or she believes that the enduring values of human dignity or respect for the individual are essential for the survival of democratic society. This reflects the widespread belief that in order to insure continuity of culture, certain basic values must be instilled in its members.

A final rationale for inculcation is the notion that certain values are universal and absolute. Thus, one would not have to analyze or clarify those values but merely commit oneself to them. The traditional Western church concept of values as having their source in God would be one example of this orientation. Some social studies educators, however, express a similar position. Oliver and Shaver (1966, p. 26), for instance, believe that certain values are nearly universal.

> For us the most basic values of the [American] Creed, as they relate to the function of the school in society, are to be treated as more than psychological facts. They describe certain potentially universal characteristics of man which, at least from our particular cultural frame of reference, make him "human"--such as a quest for self-respect, a sense of sympathy and love, a concern for fairness and justice in his dealing with others.

Teaching Methods and Instructional Model. Various models have been used to inculcate values. One of the most widely used and most effective methods is reinforcement. This process might involve positive reinforcement, such as a teacher praising a student for behaving in accordance with a particular value, or negative reinforcement, such as

a teacher punishing a student for behaving contrary to a certain desirable value. It is extremely difficult, if not impossible, for a teacher to avoid using some form of reinforcement. Often merely a smile or a frown will tend to reinforce certain values. But reinforcement can also be applied consciously and systematically, as in behavior modification.* A widely used behavior modification technique is to provide students with "tokens" such as food, play money, or grade points for doing desirable tasks like solving a math problem, remaining quiet for 20 minutes, or helping another student.

Another extremely effective method of inculcating values is modeling, in which a particular person is a model for desirable values that a teacher might want the students to adopt. The teacher, simply by personifying whatever values he or she holds, is always a model for some values--for example, punctuality or lateness, enthusiasm for learning or boredom. Even if teachers attempt to be objective and conceal their values, they become models for the values of objectivity and hiding one's values. Advocates of the new social studies have urged teachers to be examples of inquiry learners and socially active citizens in order to encourage students to adopt similar value orientations. Other students can also serve as models of desirable values. Students assume model roles when a teacher asks an individual to read his or her "A" term paper or essay answer to the class. In most cases the student's work is being singled out as an example to be followed by the rest of the class, instilling in other students the desire to produce similar work and to receive similar recognition.

Some behavioral research has indicated that a combination of reinforcement and modeling can be an effective way to inculcate values.** Students observe a model (usually another student) being reinforced for behaving according to a certain value. Studies have shown that if the model is positively reinforced or rewarded, then the observers are more

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*Although not usually considered a values education program, some of the procedures of behavior modification can be used to inculcate values. Many manuals have been developed to help teachers apply these techniques. These include works by Sarason *et al.* (1972), Sarason and Sarason (1974), Meacham and Wiesen (1969), Sulzer and Mayer (1972), and White and Smith (1972).

**For a discussion of these educational studies see Woody (1969).

likely to behave similarly and, thus, to adopt that value. On the other hand, if the model is negatively reinforced or punished, the observers are less likely to behave that way and to adopt the value underlying that behavior (Sarason and Sarason 1974, pp. 6-7). In the classroom this combination of reinforcement and modeling often occurs naturally and unwittingly. One example would be a teacher praising a student for doing his or her homework while other students look on. It is hoped, therefore, that other students will value doing their homework as well.

Another example, which often occurs contrary to the intentions of the teacher, is the student who constantly makes wisecracks in class, causing other students, and sometimes the teacher, to laugh. This response not only reinforces that person's behavior, but frequently stimulates other students to mimic the wisecrack behavior. Although some educators may interpret this reaction merely as imitative, it can also be viewed as the adoption, however superficial, of one or more values associated with that behavior--values such as being a class clown or distracting other students and the teacher.

Despite the possible negative consequences of the combined reinforcement and modeling technique, this strategy can be applied purposefully and systematically to inculcate whatever values are deemed desirable. For example, in relation to educational values, either a thoughtful questioning of or an unbridled respect for school authority could be instilled in students. The choice depends upon the values of the teachers and administrators of the school.

The methods described above, however powerful and effective, are not foolproof ways of instilling values. To stay within the scope of this work, the explanation of these techniques has been simplified. The effective use of reinforcement and modeling is actually more complicated. Specific types of rewards and schedules of reinforcement are significant factors that influence the success of efforts to change behavior and values. Further, although anyone could serve as a model, experience has shown that models who are admired or respected by the observer are most effective. Some models should be similar to the observer, others different, depending on the situation and the rationale for emulating the model. Before implementing these techniques, the reader is urged to use the sources cited in this section and in the

bibliography.

In addition to reinforcement and modeling, many other techniques have been used to inculcate values into students. Role playing and participation in games and simulations are effective ways to instill certain values. These methods, too, could be used to inculcate any kind of values. Traditionally, the use of games has implicitly instilled the value of competition. Recently, however, games have been constructed that require players to cooperate, and thus they inculcate the value of cooperation.

Some other inculcation methods seem less ethical to many educators. These include nagging, lecturing, providing incomplete or biased information, and omitting several alternatives. Some teachers, for example, knowingly or unwittingly "guide" students to the right answers during a discovery lesson by making only certain evidence available. Although most teachers frown on these methods, they are often used unconsciously but nevertheless effectively.

Although most value inculcation occurs implicitly and often unintentionally, a specific set of procedures to help teachers apply this approach explicitly and purposefully can be identified. The authors have formulated such an instructional model by combining and adapting a system of behavior modification (Sulzer and Mayer 1972) with the taxonomy of educational objectives in the affective domain (Krathwohl *et al.* 1964). This model is presented below as a possible guideline for implementing value inculcation in a systematic manner.

1) Determine the value to be inculcated--choose the value to be instilled in the students (perhaps in cooperation with students and parents)
2) Identify the level of internalization desired--select the degree of internalization that will be sought:
   a) RECEIVING
      (1) Awareness--learner (or valuer) takes into account that a phenomenon exists
      (2) Willingness to receive--learner is willing to listen to stimulus
      (3) Controlled or selected attention--learner selects and responds to favored stimuli

b) RESPONDING

(1) Acquiescence in responding--learner complies with requirements

(2) Willingness to respond--learner volunteers to exhibit an expected behavior

(3) Satisfaction in response--learner's reaction is associated with enjoyment

c) VALUING

(1) Acceptance of a value--learner's response shows consistent identification with a class or phenomena

(2) Preference for a value--learner seeks out a particular value because he is committed to it

(3) Commitment--learner displays conviction or loyalty to a cause

d) ORGANIZATION

(1) Conceptualization of a value--learner begins to relate one value to other values by means of analysis and synthesis

(2) Organization of a value system--learner begins to integrate a complex of values into an ordered relationship

e) CHARACTERIZATION BY A VALUE OR A VALUE COMPLEX

(1) Generalized set--learner orders the world around him with a consistent and stable frame of reference

(2) Characterization--learner formulates a code of conduct and a value system and they are completely internalized

3) Specify the behavioral goal--specify the behavior and the level of performance required to indicate attainment of the value at the particular level of internalization; this behavior could be in the form of an overt action (such as working for a political candidate) or a certain response to an item on a value or attitude questionnaire

4) Select an appropriate method--choose a procedure appropriate to the type of behavioral change desired:

a) Increase a behavior--positive reinforcement, provision of a model, removal of interfering conditions, games and

simulation, role playing

b) Teach a new behavior--shaping, chaining, response differentiation, games and simulation, role playing

c) Maintain a behavior--one or more of several schedules of intermittent reinforcement

d) Reduce or eliminate undesirable behavior--withdrawal of reinforcement, punishment, stimulus change

5) Implement the method:

a) Determine the baseline by measuring the dependent behavior (the behavior that is to be changed) before applying the inculcation method

b) Apply the method and measure and record the change

c) Conduct a probe to determine what factor was responsible for the behavioral change by *not* applying the behavioral procedures for several days

d) Reapply the behavioral procedures

e) Maintain the behavioral change

6) Graph and communicate the results--collate the recorded data, graph the data, make inferences concerning internalization of values, and communicate the results fo appropriate persons.

This instructional model for inculcating values is very rigorous and detailed. Although teachers may not be able to apply it fully, they may find it a useful guide for influencing the development of certain values in students. Generally, however, most inculcation occurring in the schools today does not, as the following activity illustrates, closely follow every step of this model.

Illustrative Learning Activity. This activity has been adapted from a lesson in the *Analysis of Public Issues Program* (Shaver and Larkins 1973, pp. 349-53).

Ms. Scott's 12th-grade social studies class has just read an article about Vince Lombardi, late coach of the Green Bay Packers. The passage stresses how deeply Lombardi valued winning and respect for authority. The article also provides some indication that the Packer coach also valued human dignity. Ms. Scott has chosen the article as a way to stimulate students into thinking rationally about the possible conflict between

valuing winning and respect for authority, on the one hand, and human life and compassion on the other. (By choosing and using the article for this purpose she is already inculcating a value held by many social studies educators--the value of rationally examining value conflicts.)

During the discussion of the article, Ms. Scott asks the class which of the two sets of values they believe to be most important. In order to provoke rigorous thinking, she is prepared to challenge with contrary propositions students who take either position. Thus, when several students affirm that human life and compassion are most important, she poses the idea that if the Allied soldiers had refused to obey the military command and had not killed any of the Germans during World War II (thereby upholding human life and compassion instead of victory and respect for authority) Hitler might have subjugated half of the world. Students are encouraged to test the validity of that proposition and to re-examine (although not necessarily change) their positions.

Several students then contend that winning and respect for authority are more important. To counter this position, Ms. Scott shows a slide depicting the starving children of Biafra. She then interprets by stating that those children suffered and died from malnutrition because the soldiers and leaders of Biafra and Nigeria were committed to fighting the war to the end. This, she points out, is an example of what can occur when winning and respect for authority are more highly valued than human life and compassion.

Ms. Scott did use logical propositions to question both value positions. By using the dramatic slide for the second proposition and by interpreting it for the students, however, she has unwittingly shown the former values in a less favorable light than the latter. She has, however unintentionally, interjected elements of inculcation into a basically analytical approach.

Materials and Programs. Inculcation, especially that accomplished through reinforcement and modeling, is the one values education approach that to some extent or another is embodied in all materials and programs and is used, consciously or unconsciously, by all teachers. Usually, however, the procedures are not nearly as rigorous as those presented in the model.

The extent to which certain materials and programs have as their

goal the inculcation of values varies greatly. Many programs established by individual school districts in the 1950s and early 1960s were developed to instill by means of identification and socialization certain "correct" values. Pasadena City Schools (1957) developed a program to teach moral and spiritual values in this manner. A more recent example is an effort by the Los Angeles City Schools (1966). Love, respect for law and order, reverence, justice, integrity, and responsibility were frequently among the "correct" values. Current school district curriculum guides still contain lofty statements concerning the development of values such as good citizenship, human dignity, and respect for the country. Most often, however, systematic procedures for attaining these goals are not provided. Some recent materials and programs, such as the *Human Values Series* (Steck-Vaughn) and *Building Better Bridges with Ben* (Sunny Enterprises) are designed *primarily* to instill certain values into students. The former uses eight values (wealth, rectitude, well-being, and so forth) established by Lasswell and Rucker (in Rucker *et al.* 1969) as the desired values. The latter uses 12 of Ben Franklin's 13 virtues as the values to inculcate in students.

In other materials the inculcation of certain values is one of various educational objectives. Most of the innovative social studies materials, such as the *Social Science Laboratory Units* (SRA), *Public Issues Series* (Xerox), and the *Holt Social Studies Curriculum* (Holt, Rinehart and Winston), in addition to having other cognitive goals, attempt to inculcate the values of rational thinking, discussion, and scientific investigation. Even programs like *Values Clarification* (Hart 1972) and *Values in Action* (Holt, Rinehart and Winston), which purport to deal primarily with the process of valuing, also inculcate certain values such as awareness of emotions, self-actualization, rational choice making, and purposeful behavior. Thus, regardless of the claims made by developers, every set of materials and every program in values education either implicitly or explicitly instills certain values.

Moral Development

Rationale and Purpose. The moral reasoning approach to values education attempts to stimulate students to develop more complex moral reasoning patterns through successive and sequential stages. Proponents

of this approach do not use the term *valuing* and do not define the term *values*. The emphasis on reasoning and thinking, however, indicates that values are conceived to be cognitive moral beliefs or concepts. This approach focuses exclusively on moral values, such as fairness, justice, equality, and human dignity. Other types of values (social, personal, and aesthetic) are not considered.*

Kohlberg's (1966, 1972) theory of moral development is the one most frequently used to provide a rationale for this approach. Expanding on Piaget's (1962) clinical studies of moral judgment in children and conducting his own extensive, cross-cultural research, Kohlberg has formulated a three-level, six-stage theory of the development of moral reasoning (Kohlberg 1972, pp. 11-12):

> PRECONVENTIONAL LEVEL--At this level the child is responsive to such rules and labels as good or bad and right or wrong. He interprets these labels in purely physical or hedonistic terms: If he is bad, he is punished; if he is good, he is rewarded. He also interprets the labels in terms of the physical power of those who enunciate them--parents, teachers and other adults. The level comprises the following two stages:
>
> > Stage 1: punishment and obedience orientation. The physical consequences of action determine its goodness or badness regardless of the human meaning or value of these consequences. Avoidance of punishment and unquestioning deference to power are valued in their own right, not in terms of respect for an underlying moral order supported by punishment and authority, the latter being stage 4.
> >
> > Stage 2: instrumental relativist orientation. Right action consists of that which instrumentally satisfies one's own needs and occasionally the needs of others. Human relations are viewed in terms similar to those of the marketplace. Elements of fairness, of reciprocity and equal sharing are present, but they are always interpreted in a pragmatic way. Reciprocity is a matter of "you scratch my back and I'll scratch yours," not of loyalty, gratitude or justice.

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*Recently, however, a colleague of Kohlberg, Robert Selman, has postulated a theory of social reasoning ("perspective taking") and has developed curriculum materials to help students progress through four stages of social development (Selman *et al.* 1974).

CONVENTIONAL LEVEL--At this level maintaining the expectations of the individual's family, group or nation is perceived as valuable in its own right, regardless of immediate and obvious consequences. The attitude is one not only of conformity to the social order but of loyalty to it, of actively maintaining, supporting and justifying the order, and of identifying with the persons or group involved in it. This level comprises the following two stages:

Stage 3: interpersonal concordance or "good boy-nice girl" orientation. Good behavior is that which pleases or helps others and is approved by them. There is much conformity to stereotypical images of what is majority or "natural" behavior. Behavior is frequently judged by intention: "He means well" becomes important, and one earns approval by "being nice."

Stage 4: "law and order" orientation. Authority, fixed rules and the maintenance of the social order are valued. Right behavior consists of doing one's duty, showing respect for authority and maintaining the social order for its own sake.

POSTCONVENTIONAL LEVEL--At this level there is a clear effort to reach a personal definition of moral values--to define principles that have validity and application apart from the authority of groups or persons and apart from the individual's own identification with these groups. This level again has two stages:

Stage 5: social-contract legalistic orientation. Generally, this stage has utilitarian overtones. Right action tends to be defined in terms of general individual rights and in terms of standards that have been critically examined and agreed upon by the whole society. There is a clear awareness of the importance of personal values and opinions and a corresponding emphasis on procedural rules for reaching consensus. Other than that which is constitutionally and democratically agreed upon, right is a matter of personal values and opinion. The result is an emphasis both upon the "legal point of view" and upon the possibility of making rational and socially desirable changes in the law, rather than freezing it as in "law and order" stage 4. Outside the legal realm, free agreement is the binding element of obligation. This is the "official" morality of the U.S. government and the Constitution.

Stage 6: universal ethical-principle orientation. Right is defined by the conscience in accord with self-chosen ethical principles, which in turn are based on logical comprehensiveness, universality and consistency. These principles are abstract and ethical (the golden

> rule, the categorical imperative); they are not concrete moral rules like the Ten Commandments. At heart, these are universal principles of justice, of the reciprocity and equality of human rights, and of respect for the dignity of human beings as individual persons.*

Kohlberg has identified 25 "basic moral concepts" that he uses as the foundations for formulating hypothetical moral dilemmas posed to research subjects. Kohlberg's explication of how a child at each stage would define one of these concepts (the "value of human life") clarifies the differences among his six stages (Kohlberg 1966, pp. 8-9):

> Stage 1: The value of a human life is confused with the value of physical objects and is based on the social status or physical attributes of its possessor.
>
> Stage 2: The value of a human life is seen as instrumental to the satisfaction of the needs of its possessors or of other persons.
>
> Stage 3: The value of a human life is based on the empathy and affection of family members and others towards its possessor.
>
> Stage 4: Life is conceived as sacred in terms of its place in a categorical moral or religious order of rights and duties.
>
> Stage 5: Life is valued both in terms of its relation to community welfare and in terms of life being a universal human right.
>
> Stage 6: Belief in the sacredness of human life as representing a universal human value of respect for the individual.

Several other theorists, such as Bull (1969) and Perry (1970), have posited similar schemes of moral development. These, however, have not been applied as directly to education as has Kohlberg's theory, and they will not be considered here. Moreover, regardless of the specific differences among these theorists, they share with Kohlberg several common beliefs about the nature of moral development:

1) There exist structural bases within each person which determine how he or she will perceive a value.

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*From "Understanding the Hidden Curriculum," by Lawrence Kohlberg with Phillip Whitten. Reprinted by permission from *Learning, The Magazine for Creative Teaching*, December 1972. ©1972 by Education Today Company, Inc.

2) These bases develop in a sequential series of stages. No stage may be skipped.
3) Some persons go faster and farther through the stages than others.
4) Movement from stage to stage is a long-term process and is not automatic.
5) The general direction of this movement is from no morality to social morality to autonomous morality.
6) All persons in all cultures develop through these stages.
7) Moral reasoning is related to moral behavior.*

In addition to these beliefs, Kohlberg contends that students can comprehend reasoning patterns one stage below and one stage above their own level and that exposure to the next stage of moral reasoning is essential for enhancing moral development. Furthermore, Kohlberg contends that movement from one stage to another involves not instilling an external value (as in inculcation) but encouraging the formation of value patterns toward which the students are already tending (Kohlberg 1966, p. 19).

The view of human nature reflected in the rationale for this approach seems to be similar to that manifested in the ideas of Erikson, Loevinger, and other developmental psychologists.** In contrast to the inculcation approach, the moral development approach views the person as an active initiator. The individual cannot fully change the environment, but

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*Some of these contentions are disputed by other psychologists, especially those of a nondevelopmental orientation. Specifically, contentions 6 and 7 are the most controversial, but 2 has also been criticized as too rigid.

**These theorists postulate that human growth occurs in sequential stages of development. Some psychologists have attempted to formulate developmental theories of the entire personality. Such theorists are usually termed ego development theorists. Sullivan, *et al.* (1957) and Loevinger *et al.* (1970) are examples. Other developmental psychologists seem to have concentrated on specific aspects of human growth: Piaget (Inhelder and Piaget 1958)--intellectual development; Erikson (1950)--psycho-sexual development; Harvey, Hunt, and Schroder (1961)--conceptual development; and Peck and Havighurst (1960)--character development. Those theorists who have concentrated on value development have been called moral development theorists, and these include McDougall (1908), Piaget (1962), Kohlberg (1966), and Perry (1970).

neither can the environment fully mold the individual. The actions of a person are the result of one's feelings, thoughts, behaviors, and experiences. Although the environment can determine the content of one's experiences, it cannot determine its form. Genetic structures already inside the person are primarily responsible for the way in which a person internalizes that content, and organizes and transforms it into personally meaningful data.

Teaching Methods and Instructional Model. The technique most characteristic of the moral development approach is to present a hypothetical or factual value dilemma story which is then discussed in small groups. Through a short reading, filmstrip, or film, students are presented with a story involving one or more characters confronted with a moral dilemma. Students are urged to state a position on what the person in the story should do, to provide reasons for this position, and to discuss these reasons with others. Kohlberg's research indicates that exposing students to higher levels of reasoning through group discussion stimulates them to reach the next stage of moral development.

Galbraith and Jones (1974) have experimented with many moral dilemma exercises in the classroom as part of a project at Carnegie-Mellon University designed to develop a training manual to help teachers implement Kohlberg's ideas. They have concluded that three variables are crucial to an effective group discussion of a moral dilemma, and thus, to the enhancement of moral development in students. These are (1) a moral dilemma that presents "a real conflict for the central character," includes "a number of moral issues for consideration," and "generates differences of opinion among students about the appropriate response to the situation"; (2) "a leader who can help to focus the discussion on moral reasoning"; and (3) "a classroom climate which encourages students to express their moral reasoning freely" (Galbraith and Jones 1974, pp. 6-7).

A sequential instructional model to help teachers use this approach to values education has also been formulated in the Carnegie-Mellon project. The version presented below has been adapted from Galbraith and Jones (1974, pp. 11-15):

1) Confronting a moral dilemma
   a) introduce the dilemma
   b) help students to define the terms used in the dilemma
   c) state the nature of the dilemma
2) Stating a position on the original or alternative dilemma
   a) help students establish their individual positions on the action
   b) establish the class response to the position on the action (if there is not enough conflict, introduce an alternative dilemma)
   c) help students establish the reasons for their individual positions
3) Testing the reasoning for a position on the moral dilemma
   a) select an appropriate strategy for grouping the students (small groups consisting of students who agree on the action but for different reasons or small groups of students who do not agree on the action)
   b) help students examine individual reasons with the group or class
   c) ask probe questions to elicit additional reasoning about the moral problem or a similar one or that focus on a particular issue involved in the dilemma
   d) examine reasons as they relate to the probe questions
4) Reflecting on the reasoning
   a) ask students to summarize the different reasons which they have heard
   b) encourage the students to choose the reason which they feel represents the best response to the moral dilemma
   c) ask students if they believe there is a best answer for this problem
   d) add any additional reasoning which did not occur from student discussions; these should be added not as the "best" reasons but as additional reasons to ponder

Illustrative Learning Activity. This activity has been adapted and condensed from Galbraith and Jones (1974, pp. 6-8). The teacher hands out a short reading entitled "Helga's Dilemma" and introduces it in such a way that it relates to recent classwork. The students read the passage.

HELGA'S DILEMMA

> Helga and Rachel had grown up together. They were best friends despite the fact that Helga's family was Christian and Rachel's was Jewish. For many years, this religious difference didn't seem to matter much in Germany, but after Hitler seized power, the situation changed. Hitler required Jews to wear armbands with the Star of David on them. He began to encourage his followers to destroy the property of Jewish people and to beat them on the street. Finally, he began to arrest Jews and deport them. Rumors went around the city that many Jews were being killed. Hiding Jews for whom the Gestapo (Hitler's secret police) was looking was a serious crime and violated a law of the German government.
>
> One night Helga heard a knock at the door. When she opened it, she found Rachel on the step huddled in a dark coat. Quickly Rachel stepped inside. She had been to a meeting, she said, and when she returned home, she had found Gestapo members all around her house. Her parents and brothers had already been taken away. Knowing her fate if the Gestapo caught her, Rachel ran to her old friend's house.
>
> Now what should Helga do? If she turned Rachel away, the Gestapo would eventually find her. Helga knew that most of the Jews who were sent away had been killed, and she didn't want her best friend to share that fate. But hiding the Jews broke the law. Helga would risk her own security and that of her family if she tried to hide Rachel. But she had a tiny room behind the chimney on the third floor where Rachel might be safe.
>
> Question: Should Helga hide Rachel?

The teacher helps students to define terms that might need explanation. Then he or she helps the class to establish the nature of the dilemma (Should Helga hide her long-time Jewish friend, Rachel, from the Nazi Gestapo or turn her away?). The students are then asked what

Helga should do and why. Some may believe Helga should hide her friend, others may believe she should turn Rachel over to the Gestapo. Students may also disagree about the reasons, while agreeing about the action. For example, one student might believe that Helga should tell the Nazis because she might get into trouble if she doesn't (this is Stage 2 reasoning). Another might support the same action because Helga has an obligation to protect her family (Stage 3) or to obey the laws of the government (Stage 4).

The teacher then divides the class into several discussion groups, each composed of members who agree on Helga's action but disagree on the reasons. The teacher moves from group to group to facilitate discussion and to keep the focus on moral reasoning rather than on less important details. In order to do this, the teacher might propose alternative dilemmas (for example, suppose Helga had only met Rachel once and did not know her well; what should she do then?) or pose other probe questions such as, Should a person ever risk the welfare of relatives for the welfare of friends? Why? Through discussion and reflection students are encouraged to express a reasonable value position rather than to come to a consensus by adopting other points of view. "When a good moral discussion class ends," wrote Galbraith and Jones (1974, p. 15), "students should feel that it is incomplete. They should leave the classroom still wondering about the best response to a difficult moral problem."

This sample lesson has been condensed for the purposes of illustration. Educators interested in using the moral development approach should consult materials cited in the next section or review the work produced at Carnegie-Mellon, where lesson plans have been developed that include various moral dilemmas; "a list of instructions for presenting the original dilemma; a series of alternative dilemmas to use in case the original dilemma fails to promote controversy; and a list of probe questions" (Galbraith and Jones 1974, p. 8).

Materials and Programs. Efforts to implement the moral development approach to values education began as part of several research studies by Blatt (1969). His original curriculum, used in Sunday schools and public high schools, consisted of a battery of written moral dilemmas and a few probe questions to stimulate thought. Recent curriculum development in

this area has produced more effective use of other media, including films, filmstrips, and records. The approach has also been implemented at the elementary level and in some prison education programs as well (Hickey 1974). In addition to the Carnegie-Mellon project materials, moral dilemmas have been incorporated into the revised edition of the *Holt Social Studies Curriculum.*

A concise review of other materials and programs based on Kohlberg's theory of moral reasoning is presented by Rest (1974, pp. 250-51):

> Kohlberg and his students have made a number of additional innovations which have extended the original program ideas and materials: (1) A moral education course for college undergraduates included not only the discussion-of-dilemmas format but also readings and discussions of classic moral philosophers (Boyd 1973), thus extending the resources available in the curriculum. (2) Kohlberg and Selman consulted with Guidance Associates (1972) in making a set of filmstrip-records that depict moral dilemmas for discussion by young elementary school subjects. The color pictures and accompanying sound track artfully dramatize moral dilemmas to interest and provoke discussion among youngsters. (3) Lockwood (1972) has prepared a booklet, *Moral Reasoning--the Value of Life,* as part of a social studies series developed by Oliver and Newmann (Oliver & Shaver, 1966). The booklet is especially interesting for integrating Kohlberg materials with the format developed by Oliver and Newmann. Instead of paragraph-long dilemmas (characteristic of the Blatt studies), a more extended presentation of actual documented cases is used to set up discussion (for instance a discussion of Bonhoeffer's complicity in the plot to kill Hitler, Calley and My Lai, etc.). Historical, legal, and sociological background is provided to enrich and deepen the discussion. And the discussion guides help to analyze the formal aspects of discussion along the lines suggested by Oliver and Shaver (1966). (4) The Moral Education Project of the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education is an ongoing research and development project for curriculum materials, teaching methods, teacher training, and theory elaboration. This ambitious, broad-gauge enterprise has set up moral education programs in elementary and high schools in Canada and has published books containing many practical suggestions and possible topics and materials for moral education (Beck, 1971, 1972; Beck, Crittenden & Sullivan, 1971).

The moral development approach has been a difficult one to apply to the classroom for several reasons. First, the theory upon which it is

based is somewhat complex. Second, a teacher must be very skillful at facilitating group discussions and at observing and interpreting individual student responses. Third, the procedure for determining growth in moral reasoning is complicated and time consuming to apply. These obstacles, however, have become less important in recent years with the publication of a manual for assessing the moral reasoning of students (Ontario Institute for Studies in Education 1972) and the work of the Carnegie-Mellon values education project.

Analysis

Rationale and Purpose. The purpose of the analysis approach is to help students use logical thinking and scientific investigation procedures in dealing with value issues. Like moral development, this approach also emphasizes rationality. Students are urged to provide rational justification for their value positions. Values are considered verifiable facts about the goodness or worth of phenomena. Valuing is the cognitive process of determining and justifying those facts. Unlike the moral development approach, value analysis concentrates primarily on social value issues rather than on personal moral dilemmas. Thus, the process of valuing can and should be, according to proponents of this approach,* conducted under the "total authority of facts and reason" (Scriven 1966, p. 232) and "guided not by the dictates of heart and conscience, but by the rules and procedures of logic" (Bond 1970, p. 81).

The human being, viewed from this perspective, is a rational actor in the world who can attain the highest good by subordinating feelings and passions to logic and the scientific method, thereby resolving value issues according to reason and science. The philosophical basis for the analysis approach, therefore, seems to be a fusion of the rationalist

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*The rationale for the analysis approach to values education relates directly to the ideas of a group of philosophers, known as axiologists, who engage in the objective study of ethics and morality. These axiologists include Moore (1929), Toulmin (1950), Lewis (1962), Blackham (1968), and Scriven (1966). Other value theorists who have postulated similar views of valuing are R. B. Perry (1954), Pepper (1947, 1958), and Handy (1969).

and empiricist views of human nature.*

Teaching Methods and Instructional Model. The teaching methods most frequently used in the analysis approach to values education are individual and group study of social value problems and issues, library and field research, and rational class discussions (seminar and Socratic style). These techniques are common to social studies instruction and should need no further explanation. Intellectual operations frequently used in value analysis include stating the issues, questioning or substantiating the relevance of statements, applying analogous cases to qualify and refine value positions, pointing out logical and empirical inconsistencies in arguments, weighing counterarguments, and seeking and testing evidence (Newmann and Oliver 1970, pp. 293-96).

Many analytical instructional models for teaching values in the social studies classroom have been developed. These include the "reflective value analysis" model of Hunt and Metcalf (1968, p. 134), the "Columbia Associates" model described and applied by Massialas and Cox (1966, p. 163), the "jurisprudential" model advocated and applied by Oliver and Shaver (1966, pp. 126-30), the "value inquiry" model outlined by Banks (1973, pp. 459-66), and the "identifying values model" of Taba (Fraenkel 1973, p. 235). Michaelis (1972) has identified a value analysis model that is a synthesis of the elements common to those valuing models. Some of these models contain aspects reflecting other approaches to values education. Banks' model attempts to incorporate some aspects of the clarification model. All of these models, however, fundamentally embody the analysis approach to values education, with its emphasis on logical thinking and scientific inquiry.

The model that most clearly reflects this approach is that described in the 41st NCSS Yearbook (Metcalf 1971, pp. 29-55). It is summarized below as one possible guide to implementing the value analysis approach:

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*This concept of human nature is shared by several cognitively oriented psychotherapists. Ellis' (1962) rational-emotive therapy stresses that a person must merely restructure his or her thinking rationally in order to establish rational behavior patterns. Kelly (1955) stressed the need to test one's "personal constructs" (values) empirically and experimentally.

1) Identifying and clarifying the value question--identify and call attention to the need to identify the question that is giving rise to discussion about a value issue; clarify that question by defining terms, by specifying the point of view from which the evaluation is to be made, and by specifying the value object to be judged
2) Assembling purported facts--help students to gather and organize facts relevant to making a value judgment by insuring that
   a) value assertions are not mistakenly assembled as part of the body of relevant facts
   b) a fairly wide range of facts relevant to judging the value object in question is assembled
   c) fact-gathering is carried out in such a way as not to overwhelm students with the complexity of factual material
3) Assessing the truth of purported facts--encourage students to assess the truth of purported factual assertions by finding supporting evidence and by assessing the source of the purported fact (Who said this is the case? Why should we believe what this person says?)
4) Clarifying the relevance of facts--help students to clarify the relevance of the facts by encouraging them to insure that:
   a) the facts are about the value object in question
   b) the evaluator (student) has criteria (bases) which give the facts a positive or negative valence (desirable or undesirable rating) from the point of view of the value judgment being made
5) Arriving at a tentative value decision--encourage the student to decide or choose tentatively the answer to the value question
6) Testing the value principle implied in the decision--help students to test the value principle implied in their decision for acceptability in any of four ways:
   a) "new cases test"--formulate the value principle explicitly, imagine other situations in which it would logically apply, and decide if one can accept its application in these situations
   b) "subsumption test"--formulate the value principle explicitly and assemble facts (evidence) that show that the value principle

is a case of some more general value principle that the evaluator accepts

c) "role exchange test"--imaginatively exchange roles with someone else affected by the application of the value principle and consider whether or not he/she can still accept the principle as it applies to him/her in this role

d) "universal consequences test"--imagine what the consequences would be if everyone in similar circumstances were to engage in the action being evaluated and consider whether or not one can accept these consequences

Illustrative Learning Activity. Presented here is an Evidence Card activity which is designed primarily to aid in assessing the relevance of purported facts (Step 4 in the instructional analysis model). This illustration has been adapted from Metcalf (1971, pp. 50-54).

Problem: Some students are trying to decide whether or not "welfare is a good thing."

Procedures prior to evidence card: By asking leading questions the teacher helps the students to identify and clarify the value question--Is it morally wrong for poor people to be supported by public funds through welfare programs? The value object is specified to be "welfare programs" and the point of view is "moral." The students then assemble and assess the truth of purported facts. An "evidence card" is then used to help determine the relevance of the facts.

The simplest form of an evidence card would contain the student's value judgment, his or her fact about the object being evaluated, and the criterion the student has formulated to test the relevancy of the fact. A simple form of the evidence card is presented in Figure 1. The example in the figure is based on the dilemma discussed above.

Figure 1. Simple Form of Evidence Card

Value judgment: Relief is morally wrong.
Fact: Relief gives money to people who haven't earned it.
Criterion: Practices that give money to people who haven't earned it are morally wrong.

The next step is to add a column at the right side of the card to indicate the point of view. In the example described above, the moral point of view is the appropriate one, as indicated in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Simple Form of Evidence Card with Point of View

	Point of View
Value judgment: Relief is morally wrong.	Moral
Fact: Relief gives money to people who haven't earned it.	
Criterion: Practices that give money to people who haven't earned it are morally wrong.	Moral

The next step is to place the specific evidence or backing for the fact on the *back* of the evidence card. There will often be evidence contrary to the fact, and this can also be included. Figure 3 shows this step in the development. Note that the contrary statement brings up the question of what it means to "earn" money.

Figure 3. Back of Evidence Card, with Backing and Contrary Evidence for Fact

Backing (Positive)	Contrary (Negative)
People on relief in Detroit receive $175 per month and have no jobs. People on relief in Chicago get $200 a month and do not have jobs.	Some people on relief work hard even though they don't have a job.

Finally, the reasons for and against believing the criterion are placed on the *back* of the evidence card, below the backing for the fact. Examples of such reasons are given in Figure 4. These are, of course, only examples, and the reader may supply his or her own reasons for this case.

Figure 4. Back of Evidence Card, with Backing and Contrary Evidence for the Facts, and Reasons for and against the Criterion

Backing (Positive)	Contrary (Negative)
People on relief in Detroit receive $175 a month and have no jobs. People on relief in Chicago get $200 a month and do not have jobs.	Some people on relief work hard even though they do not have jobs.
Reasons for believing criterion	**Reasons for not believing criterion**
Such practices lower a person's dignity and self-esteem. Such practices keep a person from trying to improve himself or herself.	It can't be morally wrong to raise people's standards of living when they are victims of a system over which they have no control.

Students are then encouraged to weigh this evidence and to make a tentative value decision. Several students might, for example, decide that the evidence supports the criterion--"Practices that give money to people who have not worked for it are morally wrong." Thus, they would conclude that welfare programs are morally wrong.

The teacher next urges the students to test the criterion for their judgments in any of several ways. In order to apply the "new cases test," for instance, the teacher might say: "Some people inherit large amounts of money. They have not worked for it. Is this morally wrong for them to accept the money?" This should stimulate the students to re-evaluate and refine their criteria and/or judgment.

Materials and Programs. The analysis approach to values education is the one most widely advocated by social science educators and most frequently embodied in the materials of the new social studies. Nearly

all of the major social studies methods texts support a rational-analytical approach to value issues, as the instructional models discussed above indicate. Several of the models have been used to devise social studies materials with an emphasis on values education. Oliver and Shaver's "jurisprudential model" has, in one form or another, been the basis of the values component of *The Public Issues Series* (Xerox) and the *Analysis of Public Issues Program* (Houghton-Mifflin). The Taba model has been incorporated into the *Taba Social Studies Curriculum* (Addison-Wesley). Other programs that emphasize rational analysis of social value issues include *The Social Sciences: Concepts and Values* (Harcourt-Brace), *Values and Decisions Series* (Xerox), and *American Values Series* (Hayden).

The Value Analysis Capability Development Project at the University of Utah has in the past three years been engaged in developing programed learning materials and a teacher's handbook to apply the "analysis" model first published in the 41st NCSS Yearbook (Metcalf 1971) and outlined above. Under the direction of Milton Meux, this project is now in the process of disseminating its materials (Meux *et al.* 1974; Evans *et al.* 1974).

Although some social studies educators seem to be influenced by other approaches, such as moral reasoning and clarification, most remain firmly committed to the analysis approach as the most appropriate way to deal with values in the social studies classroom.

Clarification

Rationale and Purpose. The central focus of clarification is to help students use both rational thinking and emotional awareness to examine personal behavior patterns and to clarify and actualize their values. Students are encouraged to identify and become aware of their own values and the interrelationship among values, to uncover and resolve personal value conflicts, to share their values with others, and to act according to their own value choices. Valuing, according to proponents of this approach, is a process of self-actualization involving the subprocesses of choosing freely from among alternatives, reflecting carefully on the consequences of those alternatives, and prizing, affirming, and acting upon one's choices. Values are considered the results of these

subprocesses. This specific value conception was developed by Raths *et al.* (1966), although various "humanistic psychologists" have also propounded similar ideas about the nature of values and valuing.* Whereas the inculcation approach relies generally on outside influences and the analysis approach relies on logical and empirical processes, the clarification approach relies on the wisdom of the whole human organism to decide which values are positive and which are negative. Moustakas (1966, p. 11) described the process of value development from a clarification perspective:

> The individual, being free to be, makes choices and decisions affected by willing, feeling, thinking, and intending. Through self-awareness, the person enters situations already pointed or set in certain directions. Later the experience of the individual in making choices is often based on conscious, self-determined thought and feeling. The making of choices, as a free being, which can be confirmed or denied in experience, is a preliminary step in the creation of values. Choices which confirm being and lead to enriching and expanding self-awareness, choices which deepen experience and lead to new experience, choices which challenge uniqueness and talent and lead to actualizations, enable the person to establish further his own identity. Ultimately those choices which confirm life and enable the individual to become what he can be are chosen as values. As long as the flow of real life is affirmed, then further life is facilitated. Increasingly, through a process which includes freedom, will, intention, desire, choice, confirmation and responsibility, the individual is growing and expanding in authentic ways; the individual is creating new awarenesses and values; the individual is coming to be what he can be in the light of opportunities and resources outside and potentialities and challenges inside.

Thus, within the clarification framework, a person is an initiator of interaction with society and the environment. Internal rather than external factors are seen as the prime determinants of human behavior. The individual is free to change the environment to meet his or her needs. In order to achieve this, however, a person must use all of his or her resources--including rational and emotional processes, conscious and unconscious feelings, and mind and body functions.**

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*The other major clarification theorists are Maslow (1970), Rogers (1969), and Moustakas (1966). Allport (1955), Murphy (1958), and Asch (1952) have also expressed views closely related to this conception of valuing.

**Maslow (1962), Rogers (1961), and Fromm (1947) are among the psychologists who posit similar views of human nature.

Teaching Methods and Instructional Model. Clarification, more than any other values education approach, utilizes a wide range of methods and techniques. This has occurred largely because Simon, the leading advocate of clarification, and his associates have concentrated their efforts on developing and using new "valuing strategies." These methods include large- and small-group discussion, individual and group work, hypothetical, contrived, and real dilemmas, rank orders and forced choices, sensitivity and listening techniques, songs and artwork, games and simulations, and journals and interviews.

The technique that best exemplifies and is the most characteristic of the clarification approach, however, is the self-analysis reaction worksheet. This usually consists of short readings, questions, drawings, or activities designed to stimulate students to reflect on their own thoughts, feelings, actions, and values.

The instructional model for clarification is based on the sevenfold process of valuing formulated by Raths *et al.* (1966). This model, unlike the models of other approaches, is not a rigid step-by-step set of procedures; rather, it is a flexible set of guidelines for teachers to use with students. The following procedures are adapted from Raths *et al.* (1966, pp. 38-39):

1) Choosing from alternatives--help students to discover, examine, and choose from among available alternatives
2) Choosing thoughtfully--help students to weigh alternatives thoughtfully by reflecting on the consequences of each alternative
3) Choosing freely--encourage students to make choices freely and to determine how past choices were made
4) Prizing one's choice--encourage students to consider what it is they prize and cherish
5) Affirming one's choice--provide students the opportunities to make public affirmations of their choices
6) Acting upon one's choice--encourage students to act, behave, and live in accordance with their choices
7) Acting repeatedly, over time--help students to examine and to establish repeated behaviors or patterns of actions based on their choices

All of the techniques or strategies designed to clarify values embody one or more aspects of this model. The activity described below is an example of a self-analysis worksheet that operationalizes several procedures outlined in the model.

Illustrative Learning Activity. This activity is the "Twenty Things You Like To Do" strategy devised by Simon *et al.* (1972, pp. 30-34). It is strongly recommended that the reader actually engage in the activity to gain a clearer understanding of the clarification approach.

First, down the center of the page, the student lists 20 things he or she "loves to do." Then, to the left of each item, the student gives the following information:

1) the date when you last did that activity
2) "A" if you prefer to do it alone, "P" if you prefer it with people
3) "$" if it costs more than $3 each time it's done
4) "N5" if it would not have been on your list 5 years ago
5) "M" or "F" if it would have been on the list of your mother or father
6) "*" for your five most important activities
7) "1-5" as you rank order those top five

After this, he or she answers the following three questions about the list as a whole:

1) How recently have you done your top five?
2) Which of your 20 do you wish you would do more often? How could you begin to do so?
3) Would you share your top five with the class?

Next, the student chooses one of his or her top five preferences and lists five benefits gotten from doing it. Finally, the student writes five statements completing the stem, "I learned that I . . ."

Characteristic of the clarification approach is the thoughtful examination of one's personal life which this activity emphasizes. Students begin by recalling the actions they most enjoy (steps 4 and 7 of the model). The coding phase of the activity also involves these

steps. The rank order emphasizes choosing thoughtfully from alternatives (steps 1 and 2). Affirming one's choices (step 5) occurs when students are asked to share their top five actions.

Materials and Programs. Clarification is one of the most widespread and controversial approaches to values education. Emanating originally from the humanistic education movement, values clarification has now permeated existing English, social studies, and guidance programs in many schools. The ideas and techniques have been disseminated primarily through teacher workshops conducted by Simon and his associates throughout the nation. Because of a recent surge of curriculum development, the clarification approach is now embodied in a host of teacher and student materials. The key teacher resources are *Values and Teaching* (Raths *et al.* 1966), which laid the theoretical and practical foundation for this approach to values education; *Values Clarification* (Simon *et al.* 1972), which described 79 new valuing strategies; and *Clarifying Values Through Subject Matter* (Harmin *et al.* 1973), which explained and illustrated how this approach could be incorporated into the various subject matter areas. Other resources include Simon and Kirschenbaum (1973), an anthology of readings on values clarification; Hawley *et al.* (1973), a manual for applying clarification techniques in English composition; Paulson (1974), curriculum materials and a teacher's guide that discusses several ways to structure and organize values clarifying strategies for maximum effectiveness; and Dunfee and Crump (1974), a guide for applying several clarifying strategies to value issues such as the environment, prejudice, and self-concept.

Among the student materials in values clarification are supplementary materials such as *People Projects* (Addison-Wesley), *Probe into Values* (Harcourt-Brace), and *Deciding* and *Decisions and Outcomes* (College Entrance Examinations Board). Multimedia materials include *Searching for Values* (Learning Corporation), an anthology of 15 value-laden films, *Values in Action* (Holt), a sound-filmstrip kit involving role playing value conflicts, and *Exploring Moral Values* (Schloat), a series of filmstrips that present various moral issues for students to clarify personally. Entire programs have also been developed which incorporate a clarification approach.

The Valuing Approach to Career Education (Educational Achievement Corporation), for example, is a K-8, multimedia instructional system designed to integrate the development of thinking skills, career concepts, and valuing skills in elementary students. *The Dimensions of Personality Program* (Pflaum-Standard), a K-12 curriculum, makes extensive use of self-reaction worksheets. Guidance materials at the elementary level, such as *DUSO* (American Guidance) and *Focus on Self-Development* (SRA), also use clarification techniques. Judging from the number of "clarification" materials now available, this approach seems to be both popular and widespread, despite its emphasis on personal values, feelings, and emotions.

Action Learning

Rationale and Purpose. The distinguishing characteristic of the action learning approach is that it provides specific opportunities for learners to act on their values. That is, it does not confine values education to the classroom or group setting but extends it to experiential learning in the community, where the interplay between choices and actions is continued and must be dealt with. As do those who favor clarification, proponents of action learning see valuing primarily as a process of self-actualization in which individuals consider alternatives, choose freely from among those alternatives, prize, affirm, and act upon their choices. Action learning advocates, however, extend this concept in two ways. First, they place more emphasis on action-taking inside and outside the classroom than is actually reflected in the clarification approach. Second, the process of self-actualization is viewed as being tempered by social factors and group pressures. Values are seen to have their source neither in society nor in the individual but in the interactive process between the person and the society.

The view of human nature that underlies this approach differs from the views upon which the other approaches are based. The other approaches considered the person either reactive (inculcation), active (analysis and clarification), or a combination of both (moral development). In contrast, the action learning approach perceives the individual as

interactive.* The person is not totally fashioned by the environment or vice versa. Neither does the person partly make the environment and the environment partly make the person. The person and environment, according to this theory, are mutual co-creators. The person, in fact, cannot be defined out of his or her context. In reinterpreting the ideas of the cognitive and social field psychologist, Bigge (1971, p. 40) clarifies this position:

> The basic principle of interaction is that nothing is perceivable or conceivable as a thing-in-itself; no object has meaning apart from its context. Hence, everything is construed in relation to other objects. More specifically, a thing is perceived as a figure against a background, experienced from a given angle or direction of envisionment. Persons in a given culture have a common social matrix, and a person devoid of a society is a rather meaningless concept. Still, each person is unique in both purposes and experiential background, and the reality upon which he bases intelligent action consists of himself and what he makes of the objects and events that surround him. Thus, in perception, a man and his perceived environment are coordinate; both are responsible for what is real.

Teaching Methods and Instructional Model. Many of the teaching methods used in the analysis and clarification approaches are also applied in action learning. Two techniques unique to the action approach, however, are skill practice in group organization and interpersonal relations and action projects that provide opportunities to engage in individual and group action in the school and community.

At present, the action approach is not well developed. However, an instructional valuing model that illustrates this approach is in the early stages of development by Ochoa and Johnson. Their view is that the model is circular rather than linear--that is, one may enter at several points and work backward and forward in the steps presented here.

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*This conception of human nature seems related to schools of thought in various academic disciplines: the positive relativists in philosophy (Dewey 1939; Bigge 1971), the field theorists in psychology and social psychology (Lewin 1935), the social-psychological personality theorists and therapists (Adler 1924; Horney 1950; Sullivan 1953), and the symbolic interactionists in sociology (Blumer 1969).

1) Becoming aware of a problem or issue--help student become conscious of a problem troubling others or oneself
2) Understanding the problem or issue and taking a position--help student to gather and analyze information and to take a personal value position on the issue
3) Deciding whether or not to act--help student to clarify values about taking action and to make a decision about personal involvement
4) Planning strategies and action steps--help students to brainstorm, and organize possible actions and provide skill practice and anticipatory rehearsal
5) Implementing strategies and taking action--provide specific opportunities for carrying out one's plans either as an individual working alone or as a member of a group
6) Reflecting on actions taken and considering next steps--guide students into considering the consequences of the actions taken for others, oneself, and in relation to the problem; also, guide students into thinking about possible next steps

It would seem that this is really a linear model--that a person would start at the beginning and progress through each step. But in real life this is rarely the case. Often people act impulsively after becoming aware of a problem and do their reflection later. It is for this reason that Ochoa and Johnson prefer to conceive of the model as circular rather than linear. As an instructional model it is ongoing with the action rather than only preparatory before the action.

Illustrative Learning Activity. The following activity has been developed by transforming a community action project from Jones (1971, pp. 26-29) into a valuing activity that illustrates the application of the instructional model for the action learning approach.

In a discussion of community problems, assume that students have expressed a concern about living costs for the poor. The teacher, or group leader, would try to guide students to convert their expressed concern into a workable action problem by encouraging actual diagnosis of the real-life situation of the poor in their own community. For

example, students might be asked to gather data on the similarities and differences in merchandise and credit costs between low-income and middle-income neighborhoods through field research. Two of Jones' survey charts, presented below, could be used to gather that data.

Figure 5

Retail Price Survey

To compare retail mark-ups on merchandise in low-income and middle-income neighborhoods, choose an appliance store in each neighborhood and price each of the following items. (You may wish to choose several stores in each area and calculate an average price for each neighborhood.) If possible, price the same brand of each item in order to get an accurate comparison. If you can learn the wholesale prices of each item your survey will be more complete.

Item	Brand	Wholesale Price	Retail Price	
			Store in Low Income Neighborhood	Store in Middle Income Neighborhood
Radio				
Portable Color TV				
Stove				
Sewing machine				
Refrigerator				
Vacuum cleaner				
Washing machine				

(from Jones 1971, p. 26)

Figure 6
Credit Practices

To compare credit practices in the two neighborhoods, decide on a specific item (such as a color TV) and "shop" for it at a store in each neighborhood. Request to take home an unsigned contract or information about the store's credit program or finance company contract.

Evaluate the contract or information to determine what happens if you fail to make a payment. Place a check mark in the appropriate column if the answer is yes.

	Store in Low Income Area	Store in Middle Income Area
Will the item be taken from you?		
Must you pay the return charge?		
Will you forfeit all payments made up to that time?		
Will you be responsible for the unpaid balance?		
If the item is resold for more than the unpaid balance, can the store *refuse* to give your money back?		
Will you be responsible for any defect or damage to the item?		
Could the seller collect part of your wages?		
If the contract requires a co-signer will he be liable for the debt?		
Could your property, or that of your co-signer, be taken and sold to pay toward the obligation?		
If a seond item were added to the first contract, could the first item be taken if you miss payment on the second?		
If you complete payment before the due date, can the store *refuse* to refund part of the finance charge?		
Does the contract contain a confession clause?		

(from Jones 1971, p. 27)

After comparing and contrasting differences on specific items such as radios and vacuum cleaners, the students discuss their results and formulate value questions. (Consider that at this phase in the valuing process learners are employing the methods of value analysis.) Once value questions have been generated, students employ value clarification techniques to discover their own positions on those questions.

Next the teacher, or leader, would assist students in devising feasible action projects consistent with the value positions they have taken. For example, if students decided after investigation that price and credit differences in different neighborhoods were wrong, they would be encouraged to consider possible action alternatives that might alter the situation. They might come up with such possibilities as these: (1) write and distribute a community "Buyer's Guide" describing product values and the cost of credit, (2) inform your neighborhood legal assistance office and inquire about the procedure for filing a class suit against the store or finance agent, (3) write a letter of complaint to local news media and government officials, or (4) use guerilla theater to dramatize fraudulent commercial practices. They would then judge these action alternatives according to their feasibility and appropriateness--a process requiring further value judgments. Once an action alternative is selected, students would proceed with the planning and implementation necessary to carry it out..

In summary, this activity begins after students become aware of a possible problem involving unfair merchandise and credit costs for low-income neighborhoods. The activity then follows in sequence steps 2 through 5 of the instructional model. The effectiveness of activities such as this one depends upon the feasibility of involving students in the alternative actions. Such practices are usually difficult to operationalize in traditional schools because of either scheduling or administrative and parental opposition.

Materials and Programs. Few materials or programs truly reflect the action learning approach to values education. One that seems to do so, however, is the Citizenship Education Clearing House (CECH) program in St. Louis. This program helps teachers and students set up action projects in the community, provides teacher training for running action

learning programs, and sponsors a magazine, *Proud*. Another source of models for youth action projects is *New Roles for Youth in the School and Community* (Citation Press).

Use of Typology

This classification scheme should not be construed as an absolute system of rigidly separate categories into which all materials must fit. Rather, the typology should be considered a practical framework consisting of fundamentally distinct yet somewhat interrelated concepts. Using the typology in this way to organize the literature on values and valuing should help educators to assimilate and comprehend the vast amount of materials in values education, to clarify the alternatives in making curricular decisions concerning the teaching of values, and to build a more comprehensive and effective program of values education.

The authors have designed the following exercise to help readers determine for themselves which values education approach they most value. It also helps to clarify the distinctiveness of each approach.

EXERCISE I

1) Answer each of the following questions by checking (✓) the appropriate blank:

	Yes	No
a) Are there certain values and value positions that you want your students to adopt?	____	____
b) Do you want to help students examine their personal feelings and actions in order to increase their awareness of their own values?	____	____
c) Do you want to provide definite opportunities for your students to act individually and in groups according to their values?	____	____
d) Do you want to stimulate your students to develop higher forms of reasoning about values?	____	____
e) Do you want to help students use logical thinking and scientific investigation to analyze social value issues?	____	____

2) If you responded "no" to all the above questions, then probably none of the five approaches represents your view of values education. Another possibility is that you do not want to work with values at all as a teacher.

3) Each question, a) through e), represents one of the five approaches described in this chapter. If you responded "yes" to only one question, you probably gravitate toward that approach. The five questions correlate with the five approaches as follows.

   a) = inculcation
   b) = clarification
   c) = action learning
   d) = moral development
   e) = analysis

4) If you responded "yes" to more than one question, then take those questions and rank them according to their importance to you. (#1 = goal most important to you.) The approach that corresponds to the question you ranked #1 would be the one you are most likely to use. The #2 approach in your ranking would also reflect your goals and probably would relate to the #1 approach. For example, if analysis = #1 and inculcation = #2, then analysis would be the approach you most desire to use. In addition, you probably are interested in inculcating the values underlying the analysis approach--rationality, intellectual curiosity, the scientific method, etc. The #2 approach could relate to your first choice in another way. If, for instance, you selected clarification = #1 and action learning = #2 it might mean that you believe that persons must clarify their values before acting upon them. Thus, those two approaches are somewhat related. The emphasis on rationality could be the basis for moral development and analysis being your top two choices.

The authors hope the reader has found this exercise (valuing activity) helpful in clarifying his or her own values concerning the five approaches of the typology. Such clarification will probably enhance the meaning of the rest of the book.

The typology of five values education approaches is an integral part of each of the remaining chapters. In the materials analysis instrument in Chapter 2, one item requires the evaluator to classify the values education materials under consideration according to one of the five approaches. In Chapter 3, the typology provides the organizing framework for the annotated bibliography of values education resources.

Other Approaches

The five approaches to values education described in this typology represent the range of alternatives reflected in existing curriculum materials and teaching methods. There are, however, two other approaches which, for lack of instructional resources, have not been included in the

typology but are nevertheless valid alternatives in values education. Firmly grounded in philosophy and psychological theory, the "union" and "evocation" approaches are briefly explained below.

Evocation

Some theorists conceive of valuing as a process of emoting or feeling. Values are seen as personal emotions reflecting moral approval or disapproval. No set of values is thought to be better or worse than another. Except for measuring the strength of one's values, objective, empirical validation is impossible. People are valuing, not when they are making statements or assertions about their moral feelings, but when they are actually evincing or expressing them. Valuing is the process of experiencing and expressing one's own intensely personal feelings about good and evil.

The values education approach based on such a conception of valuing is termed *evocation*. Its purpose is to help students evince and express their values genuinely and spontaneously without thought, hesitation, or discussion.

Probably the only pure example of a person valuing in the way the evocation approach suggests is the infant, who without thinking or hesitating knows what his or her organism wants and does not want, likes and dislikes, and approves of and disapproves of, and who spontaneously behaves by crying, cooing, or laughing. Carl Rogers (1964, pp. 160-67), in fact, sees this as the first stage in the development of a person's valuing process. He calls it "organismic valuing"--one's organism instinctively knows what is good for itself and what is not. Despite the possibility that only an infant can truly "evoke values" spontaneously, this approach is considered here for two reasons. First, the rationale upon which it is based has been supported by several philosophers and psychologists.* Second, some educators, Rogers included, believe that

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*The rationale for the evocation approach seems closely related to the ideas of philosophers such as Kierkegaard, Ayer (1946), and Westermarck (1932) and psychologists such as Combs and Snygg (1949) and Whitaker and Malone (1953). Each of these theorists stresses either the subjective or the emotional side of a person, or both. Psychotherapists Whitaker and Malone, in fact, directly attempt in their therapy to help persons engage in spontaneous, autonomous choosing.

one of the key goals of values education should be to help persons once again "get in touch" with their spontaneous, emotional, and organismically based valuing process and to integrate it into their value systems.

No one has explicitly developed a teaching methodology or an instructional model to help teachers in applying the evocation approach to values education. Extreme proponents of this approach would consider a rigid set of procedures an anathema to the essential purpose of evocation--to foster spontaneous, nonrational choicemaking.

Some methods that have been used by teachers do, however, seem to reflect this objective. The open school or classroom that emphasizes free exploration and reaction to the environment especially in terms of feelings would be one example. Another method that seems related to this approach is to present a series of provocative stimuli, for example, pictures, slides, flimstrips, movies, or readings, and to elicit spontaneous, gut-level reactions from the students. The goal would not be to discuss or analyze these reactions, but to get students to react personally and genuinely to the situations in terms of their own values.

No curriculum materials or programs exist which directly manifest an evocation approach to values education. Several educational programs, such as "confluent education" (Brown 1971), "curriculum of affect" (Weinstein and Fantini 1970) and *The Human Development Program* (Palomares and Bessell 1970), stress awareness and expression of feelings, but they do not consider feelings as values. Moreover, contrary to the spirit of evocation, each of these programs emphasizes cognitive growth as well as affective development.

While not denying the importance of rationality, another curriculum project, Essentia, clearly focuses on the emotional and intuitive side of human learning. Although concentrating on the development of student and teacher resource materials for environmental education, the directors seem to propound a position on values education closely related to the evocation approach. Samples (1974, p. 49), for example, affirms that personal experiences and some research indicate that a person's most significant decisions are "based on emotion and intuition, not logic and rationality." He urges that teachers help students become "increasingly sensitive to the emotional drives that engage their value structures."

Union

One group of theorists contends that values are eternal ideas that have their source in God. The popular interpretation of that viewpoint is that God is an absolute monarch who dictates the "right" spiritual values to his followers. The traditional Western church reflects this view, and Catholic education is an example of values education based on this idea. This conception of value indoctrination--spiritual inculcation--does not necessarily fall outside the typology. Valuing is considered a mystical socialization process in which values from an outside source, in this case God rather than the culture, are being instilled into persons.

There is, however, another interpretation of the union approach which derives from a conception of God vastly different from the transcendent ruler concept. According to this view of union, God is seen as the "ultimate ground of being," the fundamental essence of things. The individual is not considered apart from God, but as one with God. This interpretation offers a distinctive view of human nature which is shared by many theorists.* Valuing, even if it involves ultimate, absolute values, cannot be an inculcation process--there is no external force imposing values from without. Rather, valuing is seen as a process of making contact with the core of being within and outside oneself. This contact focuses on a feeling of "at-oneness" with the cosmos, variously termed *cosmic consciousness, individuation of the self, power of being, peak experience,* and the *You are It* feeling.

A variety of techniques exists to assist persons in achieving this experience. Some of these are Jungian dream analysis and psychotherapy, transcendental meditation, encountering transforming symbols, self-hypnosis, active and symbolic imagination, and Zen Buddhism. There are, however, no instructional models or sets of material to integrate this approach to values and valuing into school curriculum. Translating the

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*The following theorists reflect this view of human nature and existence: existentialists Tillich (1952) and Bugenthal (1965), Eastern philosophers Watts (1967) and Suzuki (1959), depth psychologists Jung (1939) and Progoff (1956), and the sociologist Pitirim Sorokin (1959).

"union" or "cosmic consciousness" objectives into specific class activities is a difficult and delicate task. One might easily and unwittingly begin to use inculcation to instill a feeling of at-oneness in students. Or, if one tried to explain this unity of the cosmos by examining its chemical/physical aspects, one would be using analysis. Only if an activity led to an intuitive, transrational awareness of ultimate unity would the approach truly be union.

This is not to say that partial manifestations of this approach do not exist in educational theory and practice. "Confluent education" (Brown 1971) is one example of an educational program exhibiting some concern for transcendent experiences and spiritual development (Assagioli 1971; Yeomans 1972). Recent trends in Catholic education, such as "search retreats," strive to provide students with experiences emphasizing the unity of all peoples and things. Transcendental meditation has become an accepted part of the curriculum in some states (Driscoll 1972).

Outside the educational system there have also been manifestations of this approach. Workshops and seminars conducted by the late Alan Watts and other similarly oriented theorists used a variety of methods to convey the message of oneness. Another effort to convey this fundamental unity of the cosmos is the "Creative Initiative Foundation." This community consists of families (largely in the San Francisco Bay area) who have committed much of their energies in the form of group seminars, workshops, creative artistic productions, and personal activities designed to deepen and broaden the feeling of oneness with the universe.

Except in the religiously oriented periodicals and books, the union approach seems to receive scant attention in the educational literature. One exception is an article by Harman in *Approaches to Education for Character* (1969, pp. 301-14) which identifies the process of cosmic consciousness and confrontation with transforming symbols as two significant approaches to self-image transformation. Another is an article by Foster in *Values in an Age of Confrontation* (1970, pp. 119-23) which stresses the need to view valuing essentially as a religious experience.

Drews and Lipson (1971) also acknowledge the possibility that values have their source in an ultimate ground of being. They contend that one

might become attuned to "goodness" by experiencing cosmic consciousness (Drews and Lipson 1971, p. 68). They envision education as creative growth affirming "the unity of all and the cosmic consciousness which apprehends it.... Each person is regarded as both a unique entity and a part of the universal order" (Drews and Lipson 1971, p. 153).

Generally, however, it appears that the union approach to values education is being manifested outside of the educational system. Some of these manifestations, such as the efforts of the "Creative Initiative Foundation," could be used as bases for developing and refining a values education approach as an integral part of the existing educational structure.

Chapter 2

Analyses of Values Education Materials

This chapter presents some guidelines for examining the vast amounts of student and teacher materials that have been developed in values education. The first section presents an original framework for analyzing values education materials. The second section explains certain aspects of that analysis system. The results of applying this instrument to a sample of materials from four of the five approaches described in the typology are then provided. These results are presented in the form of four- or five-page narrative summaries. The final section is designed to help readers consider certain criteria when choosing values education materials.

The analysis system upon which this chapter is based is not offered here as the only way to look critically at values education materials. The criteria embodied in the instrument are suggested as possible items on which someone interested in selecting values materials could focus. Application of the instrument to materials will, as shown in the analysis summaries, generate much information about the values education materials. In order to make curriculum decisions based on this data, however, educators must be aware of their own needs and values and determine for themselves which kinds of information are the most significant.*

Analytical Framework for Values Education Materials

1.0 Descriptive Characteristics

- 1.1 Title:
- 1.2 Curriculum:
- 1.3 Developer(s):
- 1.4 Publisher:
- 1.5 Date:

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*The authors request that anyone applying the analysis instrument to a set of materials send a copy of the results and any suggestions for improving the instrument to Douglas P. Superka, Social Science Education Consortium, 855 Broadway, Boulder, Colorado 80302.

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1.6 Grade level(s):

1.7 Materials and cost:

1.8 Description:

2.0 Rationale and Objectives

2.1 The rationale for these materials is

2.11 Clearly stated (provide)

2.12 Implied, but not stated (explain)

2.13 Not provided and not easily ascertained (explain)

2.2 The values education approach advanced in the rationale and reflected in the objectives or purposes is basically

2.21 Inculcation

2.22 Moral development

2.23 Analysis

2.24 Clarification

2.25 Action learning

2.26 Other (explain)

2.3 The rationale for the materials (check more than one, if applicable)

2.31 Emphasizes rational-analytical processes

2.32 Emphasizes personal revelation and reflection

2.33 Accepts nonrational as well as rational ways of valuing (explain)

2.34 Encourages actions based on one's values

2.35 Other (explain)

2.4 The author/developer's own biases and position with respect to values education are

2.41 Explicitly acknowledged

2.42 Implied, but not explicitly acknowledged (explain)

2.43 Not easily ascertained (explain)

2.5 The terms *values* and *valuing* are

2.51 Specifically defined in some part of the materials or in the leader's guide

2.52 Not specifically defined but their meaning is implied

2.53 Not defined and not implied

Give explicit definition or implied meaning:

Values:

Valuing:

2.6 The objectives for different activities of the materials (check more than one, if applicable) are

2.61 Stated specifically

2.62 Stated in behavioral terms

2.63 Directly linked to the mode of evaluation

2.64 Described in vague terms

2.65 Not indicated at all

Provide example:

3.0 Preconditions and Usability

3.1 The materials are designed for use with the following groups (check more than one, if applicable)

3.11 Elementary, or ages 4-11

3.12 Junior high, middle school, or ages 11-14

3.13 High school, or ages 14-18

3.14 Adult, or ages 18 or over

3.2 The most appropriate time frame for use of these materials is

3.21 One session

3.22 Various periodic sessions

3.23 Unit

3.24 Course

3.25 Other (explain)

3.3 With respect to adaptability, these values education materials

3.31 Must be purchased as a complete package and used in sequence

3.32 Must be purchased as a complete package but can be used in any sequence

3.33 Provide for the users to generate part of the content

3.34 Other (explain)

3.4 Use of materials requires learners to have

3.41 Well-developed reading skills (explain)

3.42 Basic reading skills only (explain)

3.43 Little or no basic competence in reading (explain)

3.5 With respect to ethnic and other biases, these materials either directly or indirectly show some evidence of (check more than one, if applicable)

3.51 Racial prejudice or stereotyping (explain)

3.52 Religious prejudice or stereotyping (explain)

3.53 Sex prejudice or stereotyping (explain)

3.54 Ethnic prejudice or stereotyping (explain)

3.55 Other forms of prejudice or stereotyping (explain)

3.56 No evidence of prejudice or discrimination (explain)

3.6 These materials are appropriate for use in (check more than one, if applicable)

3.61 Traditional school settings

3.62 Progressive school settings

3.63 Open or free school settings

3.64 Nonschool settings (churches, clubs, etc.)

3.7 The following preconditions are necessary for effective use of these materials with the target group(s) (check more than one, if applicable)

3.71 Training of the teacher/leader in some form of values education

3.72 A classroom or group climate that encourages openness, trust and understanding

3.73 School or organizational support for exploration and/or clarification of personal values on deeply felt or controversial matters

3.74 Community acceptance of exploration and/or clarification of personal values on deeply felt and/or controversial matters

3.75 No particular preconditions necessary for use of the materials

3.76 Other (explain)

4.0 Content

4.1 In these materials values education is

4.11 The major focus

4.12 One of several important concerns (explain)

4.13 A peripheral concern (explain)

4.2 The main emphasis of these materials is on

4.21 Personal value issues and problems (e.g., problems in relating to parents or peers, choices about the use of drugs, etc.)

4.22 Social issues and community problems (e.g., racial conflict, environmental pollution, political controversies, etc.)

4.23 Other (explain)

4.3 Most of the emphasis in these materials is on

4.31 The process of valuing

4.32 The content of values

4.33 Both process and content equally

4.34 Other (explain)

4.4 Describe briefly the content format of the materials

4.5 Provide an example from the materials which illustrates the first four questions of this section

5.0 Procedures and Activities

5.1 The dominant values education approach reflected in the procedures and activities found in these materials is

5.11 Inculcation

5.12 Moral development

5.13 Analysis

5.14 Clarification

5.15 Action learning

5.16 Other (explain)

5.2 These materials employ the following modes to present the content (check more than one, if applicable)

5.21 Value dilemma episodes

5.22 Case studies

5.23 Stories that end with a specific or implied moral

5.24 Data collection instruments to elicit content from class or group members

5.25 Role play, games, or other enactive situations

5.26 Self-analysis, worksheet

5.27 Other (explain)

5.3 Procedures and activities for the use of the materials

5.31 Are specifically outlined by the author/developer (in a leader's guide or by other means)

5.32 Are discussed in general with a few specific suggestions

5.33 Are left up to the teacher/leader

5.34 Are left up to the learners

5.35 Other (explain)

5.4 The activities embodied in the materials encourage learners to (check more than one, if applicable)

	Frequently	Sometimes	Rarely
5.41 Articulate their value positions to themselves	_____	_____	_____
5.42 Provide reasons for their value positions to themselves	_____	_____	_____
5.43 Share their value positions and/or reasons with others	_____	_____	_____
5.44 Analyze value issues (e.g., discovering assumptions, specifying criteria, etc.)	_____	_____	_____
5.45 Examine their own personal behavior patterns	_____	_____	_____
5.46 Make decisions based on their values	_____	_____	_____
5.47 Act on their value-based decisions	_____	_____	_____
5.48 Other (explain)	_____	_____	_____

5.5 The rights of learners are protected by procedures and activities that

5.51 Make it legitimate for a learner to "pass" or not respond, if that is the person's choice

5.52 Encourage all learners to understand and empathize with persons whose positions may be different from their own

5.53 Neither of these (explain)

5.54 Other (explain)

5.6 The following types of activities are common to these materials (check more than one, if applicable)

5.61 Reading

5.62 Writing

5.63 Discussion

5.64 Games or simulations

5.65 Role play or other enactive experiences

5.66 Action projects

5.67 Other (explain)

5.7 The materials provide learners with experiences or training in the following skills (check more than one, if applicable)

		Frequently	Sometimes	Rarely
5.71	Self-awareness	_____	_____	_____
5.72	Listening and attending	_____	_____	_____
5.73	Empathy	_____	_____	_____
5.74	Help-giving and supporting	_____	_____	_____
5.75	Discussion analysis	_____	_____	_____
5.76	Criteria development	_____	_____	_____
5.77	Criteria application	_____	_____	_____
5.78	Decision making	_____	_____	_____
5.79	Conflict resolution	_____	_____	_____
5.79.1	Group work	_____	_____	_____
5.79.2	Social participation	_____	_____	_____
5.79.3	Other (explain)	_____	_____	_____

6.0 Evaluation

6.1 With respect to evaluation of student/learner progress, the materials (check more than one, if applicable)

6.11 Specify evaluation procedures

6.12 Provide for periodic diagnostic evaluation

6.13 Provide diagnostic instruments (formative evaluation)

6.14 Provide final assessment instruments (summative evaluation)

6.15 Do not provide any instruments, but there are some appropriate instruments available from other sources (specify)

6.16 Provide only general guidelines for evaluation (explain)

6.17 Do not provide any help with evaluation

6.18 Other (explain)

6.2 The evaluation procedures provided or available reflect the following modes of administration (check more than one, if applicable)

6.21 Printed or written tests

6.22 Printed or written self-report questionnaires

6.23 Audio and/or visual stimuli

6.24 Interviews

6.25 Observation

6.26 Other (explain)

6.3 The modes of response used in these evaluation procedures are (check more than one, if applicable)

6.31 Written	6.32 Non-written
6.311 Multiple choice	6.321 Oral presentation
6.312 Essay	6.322 Discussion
6.313 Short answer	6.323 Role play
6.314 Completion	6.324 Simulation
6.315 True/false or yes/no	6.325 Games
6.316 Matching	6.326 Natural learner behavior
6.317 Creative tasks	

6.31 Written (continued)	6.32 Non-written (continued)
6.318 Research reports	6.327 Creative tasks
6.319 Other learner products (specify)	6.328 Other (specify)

6.4 The evaluation instruments provided or available for use with these materials (check more than one, if applicable)

- 6.41 Are basically objective in nature
- 6.42 Are standardized
- 6.43 Have been empirically validated
- 6.44 Have been determined to be reliable
- 6.45 Are basically subjective in nature
- 6.46 Have not been empirically validated
- 6.47 Have not been determined to be reliable
- 6.48 Other (explain)

6.5 These values education materials (check more than one, if applicable)

- 6.51 Have been subject to rigorous empirical research
- 6.52 Have been subject to relatively crude empirical research
- 6.53 Have been systematically field tested in the formative stages
- 6.54 Are subject to periodic evaluation and revision by developers
- 6.55 Have not been systematically field tested
- 6.56 Have been informally evaluated by teachers, students, and other users
- 6.57 Have not been evaluated in any way to this analyst's knowledge
- 6.58 Other (explain)

6.6 Elaborate on the results of any evaluation efforts:

7.0 Characteristics of the Materials Analyst

7.1 What is the analyst's educational affiliation?

7.11 Elementary level

7.12 Junior high or middle school level

7.13 Senior high school

7.14 College or university level

7.15 Other (explain)

7.2 What is the values education approach preferred by the analyst?

7.21 Inculcation

7.22 Moral development

7.23 Analysis

7.24 Clarification

7.25 Action learning

7.26 Other (explain)

7.3 How long has the analyst been involved in values education?

7.31 No experience

7.32 One year

7.33 Two-three years

7.34 More than three years

7.4 In what settings has the analyst used values education materials? (explain)

7.5 Has the analyst ever used the materials reviewed here in a teaching or learning situation?

7.51 Yes

7.52 No

Explanation of the Framework

Although the major divisions of our framework parallel those of other curriculum materials analysis systems, the component questions are for the most part unique to values materials. For example, the first section of the framework after 1.0 Descriptive Characteristics is 2.0 Rationale and Objectives. This is a common materials analysis category; however, the individual questions under this heading are aimed at values materials. Consider:

2.2 The values education approach advanced in the rationale and reflected in the objectives or purposes is basically

- 2.21 Inculcation
- 2.22 Moral development
- 2.23 Analysis
- 2.24 Clarification
- 2.25 Action learning

or:

2.3 The rationale for the materials (check more than one, if applicable)

- 2.31 Emphasizes rational-analytical processes
- 2.32 Emphasizes personal revelation and reflection
- 2.33 Accepts nonrational as well as rational ways of valuing (explain)
- 2.34 Encourages actions based on one's values
- 2.35 Other (explain)

Both items clearly relate to values. Item 2.2, however, requires more interpretation on the part of the reviewer. Thus, a brief explanation of this item is presented here.

Item 2.2 calls for the reviewer to determine the principal values education approach reflected in the rationale and objectives of the materials. Later in the instrument (in section 5.0) the reviewer must make a similar decision based on procedures and activities in the materials. The overview of the typology presented on pages 4 and 5 should be helpful in answering these two questions. The reviewer should consult the statements of the rationale and objectives in the teacher's guides and student materials and compare them to the purposes outlined in the typology overview in order to see which approach the materials most clearly reflect.

To determine which approach is really embodied in the procedures of the materials (item 5.1), examine the following aspects: (1) the questions to be asked by the teacher or printed in the text, and (2) the other activities in which the students are asked to engage. Look for what the questions and activities focus on (social issues, personal values, and so forth), what purposes are manifested, and what processes the student must use to answer the questions and do the activities. Simply identifying the methods or activities is not sufficient. Role playing, for example, could be used to inculcate certain values or to clarify one's values. Once again, the overview should be used to compare the approaches.

The other items under 2.0 Rationale and Objectives are self-explanatory. In the 3.0 Preconditions and Usability, items 3.4 through 3.7 require some interpretation. For item 3.4, which deals with reading skills required of learners, look again for what learners are to do. If they are to respond to leader questions by discussion or role play, as in some of the values clarification exercises, little or no basic reading skills are required. If, however, the main student activity in the materials is reading, then one must make a judgment based on reading difficulty. For example, the various booklets in the Scholastic *Contact* series are geared to fourth- to sixth-grade reading levels despite being designed for some junior high students. The readings that accompany the senior high *Analysis of Public Issues Program* (Houghton-Mifflin), on the other hand, assume high school-level reading ability. Consequently, the *Contact* booklets should be rated "basic reading skills only" (option 3.42) and the *Analysis of Public Issues Program,* "well-developed reading skills" (option 3.41).

Item 3.5 is concerned with ethnic and other biases. One should look at the choice of words, illustrations, and examples used in the materials. One should also check to see if the characters reflect a variety of races and ethnic groups and both sexes. Also, ask if the characters are presented only in traditional, stereotypical roles. If more than one instance of a type of prejudice or stereotyping was present, the authors of this paper rated the materials as displaying a particular bias--religious, sexual, or ethnic, depending on the evidence.

Item 3.6 focuses on suitable settings for use of the materials. Because many organizations other than schools, such as churches, the YMCA, and community centers, are becoming involved in different aspects of values education, the range of useability of the materials is important. Often, merely the nature of the materials package can determine where they are most appropriate. Thus, the *Values Clarification* handbook (Simon *et al.* 1972) could easily be used in school and nonschool settings, whereas the *Concepts and Values* (Harcourt) textbook series seems more appropriate to school settings.

Item 3.7 addresses three levels of problems associated with values education--community, group, and individual. If the materials required skills that the average teacher would not possess and if few guidelines for using the materials were provided, then the authors of this paper judged that some training for the teacher was necessary. By the nature of most values materials, an open, trusting classroom climate seems necessary. School and community acceptance often depends on the local area where the materials are used. Generally, the more the materials focus on personal values or controversial social topics (such as sex) the more critical it becomes to obtain school and community acceptance.

Under section 4.0 of the analytical framework--Content--items 4.1 and 4.3 require some interpretation. Item 4.1, which deals with the amount of emphasis given to values education as compared to other instructional concerns, is fairly simple--what percent of the materials emphasize value problems. For example, in comparing the Holt series edited by Edwin Fenton--*Comparative Political Systems, Comparative Economic Systems,* and so forth--and the Harvard *Public Issues Series* (Xerox)--*Taking A Stand, Race and Education, Science and Public Policy,* and so forth--one finds that although both raise some values issues, the Harvard *Public Issues Series* does so to a far greater extent than the Holt series. Thus, the Harvard series was viewed as having a major focus on values education and the Holt series as dealing with values as one of several important concerns.

Item 4.3 distinguishes between emphasis on the process of valuing and emphasis on the content of values. Here the difference between the clarification approach, which emphasizes process, and the inculcation approach, which emphasizes content, becomes apparent. One finds, for example, far more emphasis on process in *Values Clarification* (Simon *et al.* 1972) and far more emphasis on content in *The Human Values Series* (Blanchette *et al.* 1970).

Under Procedures and Activities, section 5.0 of the analytical framework, items 5.1, 5.4, and 5.7 require reviewer interpretation. Guidelines for answering question 5.1 have already been discussed (see page 58).

Item 5.4, which focuses on the type of valuing activities in which learners are to engage, can be answered by again looking at what learners are to do. Do the activities require social interaction among learners--sharing of views, support of them with reasons, etc.--or are they designed for private reflection? To what extent are learners to make decisions and act on them? The authors approached this item by sampling activities throughout the materials to determine the frequency with which behaviors listed under item 5.4 were demanded of students. Item 5.7, which focuses on skill development, was approached the same way, except that training was interpreted to mean some instruction or skill practice rather than merely a general experience.

Under 6.0 Evaluation, most of the items are self-explanatory, except possibly items 6.4 and 6.5. Item 6.4, which deals with evaluation instruments, depends on information provided by the author, developer, or publisher on validity and reliability. Often such information may be found in prepublication reports to the funding source--for example, to the National Science Foundation or to the U. S. Office of Education for certain curriculum projects. Generally speaking, however, the authors of this paper found few values education materials that included evaluation instruments. Item 6.5, which focuses on field testing or other formative evaluation procedures, presents the same problem as 6.4--reviewer response is dependent on information provided by the author, developer, or publisher. Often, phone calls to the publisher can elicit evaluative data otherwise unavailable.

Finally, the last division of the analytical framework--Characteristics of the Materials Analyst--concerns the reviewer's own orientation and experience. Items in this division are self-explanatory.

As stated earlier, this analytical framework is suggested as one way to sort out the various questions that practitioners often raise about values education materials. It was used in each of the materials analyses presented in the next section of this chapter. For the sake of conciseness, however, the answer sheets were converted into short, descriptive reviews.

Analysis Summaries

This final section consists of narrative summaries of analyses of 13 sets of values education materials. An attempt was made to select materials representing each of the five approaches of the typology. Several factors, particularly the scarcity of resources, prevented any materials of the action learning approach from being included. Analysis summaries for each of the following resources are included:

INCULCATION

The Human Values Series (Steck-Vaughn)

MORAL DEVELOPMENT

Comparative Political Systems, Holt Curriculum (Holt, Rinehart and Winston)

First Things: Values (Guidance Associates)

ANALYSIS

Analysis of Public Issues Program (Houghton-Mifflin)

People in Neighborhoods, Taba Program (Addison-Wesley)

Sources of Identity, Concepts and Values Series (Harcourt)

CLARIFICATION

Making Value Judgments (Merrill)

Prejudice: The Invisible Wall, Contact Series (Scholastic)

Search for Values, Dimensions of Personality Program (Pflaum-Standard)

Searching for Values: A Film Anthology (Learning Corporation of America)

Values Clarification (Hart Publishing Company)

Values in Action (Holt, Rinehart and Winston)

Valuing Approach to Career Education, K-2, K-8 Series (Education Achievement Corp.)

The materials were chosen according to several criteria: the authors sought to emphasize student rather than teacher materials, to include a variety of media (books, filmstrips, films), to represent a span of grade levels (elementary, middle or junior high, and senior high school), and to reflect clearly the corresponding approach to values education. These 13 sets of materials are not necessarily the "best" values education resources (whatever that might mean).

Materials Using Inculcation Approach

TITLE: *The Human Values Series*

DEVELOPERS: Zelda Beth Blanchette, V. Clyde Arnspiger, James A. Brill, and W. Ray Rucker

PUBLISHER: Steck-Vaughn Company, P. O. Box 2028, Austin, Texas 78767

DATES: 1970, 1973

GRADE LEVEL: K-6

MATERIALS AND COSTS: Hardbound teacher's edition, $2.25 each; paperbound student text and accompanying paperbound teacher's edition, $3.95 per pair; 10 *Human Values Series* teaching posters for K level, $18.75.

DESCRIPTION: A student textbook and a teacher's edition are available for each grade level, K through 6, and have the following titles: *The Human Value Series Teaching Pictures* (K), *About Me* (1), *About You and Me* (2), *About Values* (3), *Seeking Values* (4), *Sharing Values* (5), and *Thinking with Values* (6). A set of ten posters accompanies the K-level materials.

Rationale and Objectives

The series has a well-defined rationale. As stated in the teacher's edition for each grade level of the materials, the purpose is "to make it possible for each child to achieve his highest potential in developing his creative and productive capacities." The developers explicitly acknowledge their own biases and positions toward values education and only imply the meaning of the terms *values* and *valuing*. In this series, values are considered the same as human wants or needs. Eight categories of "values" are described: affection, respect, well-being, wealth, power, rectitude, skills, and enlightenment.

The rationale reflects an inculcation approach to values education. Expanding on their rationale, the developers state: "another purpose... is to provide specific examples of moral standards and ethical behavior that are compatible with the democratic view." Actualizing the rationale, the developers emphasize rational-analytical processes plus the shaping

and sharing of the eight values they deem basic to human beings. The objectives for each section of the series are specifically stated. In *About You and Me,* for example, the story "The Big Dolphin's Friend" attempts to encourage in students the values of respect and affection.

Preconditions and Usability

The materials could occupy several sessions of instruction (two or three weeks), or they could compose an entire year's course. Using the materials for a full year would enable the learners to receive better reinforcement during their values education. With a text developed for each elementary grade, the series is designed for ages 4 through 11. The chapters demonstrate no evidence of prejudice or discrimination; the stories involve persons of both sexes and from a variety of ethnic, socio-economic, and family backgrounds. Books for one grade can be purchased separately from texts for other grade levels. The chapters designed for each grade level can be used in any sequence.

Teachers in traditional school settings will find the series appropriate, especially if they encourage openness, trust, and understanding in their classrooms. Special training for teaching the materials is available through workshops sponsored by the Value Education Consultants Clearinghouse, P.O. Box 947, Campbell, California 95008. Because reading is a major part of the series, learners need well-developed reading skills. The vocabulary is geared for the individual grade levels, and a "new word" list concludes each teacher's edition. The categories of the eight values are basic and understood by students with good reading skills.

Content

Making values education the main focus of the series, the developers have basically emphasized the content of values by presenting personal value issues and problems related to the eight value categories discussed in their rationale. In the fifth-grade materials, for example, the students who work with the story "An Eye for an Eye" will learn about rectitude and well-being. Focusing on the theme of justice, the story "demonstrates how ideas of right and wrong vary from one part of the world to another." Students can be encouraged to express opinions of what they think justice

(judging or treating fairly) is, on the basis of their own experiences or knowledge. Generally, most of the stories for all seven grade levels end with a specified or implied moral.

Procedures and Activities

The procedures and activities in *The Human Values Series* strongly reflect an inculcation approach. For example, in *Seeking Values*, the fourth-grade text, the story "That Guilty Feeling" teaches two points: "dishonesty, in the long run, is too great a price to pay for a temporary enhancement of affection" and "most people are eager to forgive and to go out of their way to reward a penitent person."

The teacher's edition for each grade level specifically outlines procedures and activities for all the stories. It provides suggestions for introducing and teaching each story, additional assignments, a vocabulary study, and a value analysis. The materials are designed to help students understand their value positions, to share their value positions, and to analyze the value issues presented in each story in order to see which of the eight categories the issues represent. In addition, students are frequently encouraged to make decisions about their own values in terms of affection, respect, well-being, wealth, power, rectitude, skills, and enlightenment; at times they are encouraged to act according to their decisions. The rights of learners will be protected by teachers who stress that no one should enhance his or her own values by depriving others of their rights.

Students are required to read and discuss the materials. By doing these activities students can practice, intermittently, a variety of skills--developing self-awareness, empathy, help-giving capabilities, and the ability to analyze discussion, work in groups, and act upon their values. The materials seldom provide learners with opportunities to develop the skills of listening and attending, criteria development and application, or conflict resolution.

Evaluation

The actual materials provide no help with evaluation. Instruments, however, are available from other sources: Rucker *et al.* (1969, pp. 278,

281-85); *Simpson Perception of Values Inventory* (PVI), grade 4 through adult; *Gardner Analysis of Personality Survey* (GAP), grade 7 through adult; *Murphy Inventory of Values* (MIV), grades K through 8 plus adults; *Sanford Seiders Values Inventory of Behavioral Responses* (VIBR), grades 4 through 6. The MIV is a projective (thematic) instrument. The others represent printed or written tests, audio or visual stimuli, and observation. Students are able to respond in written ways--multiple choice and short answer tests--or through the nonwritten means of discussion. All the instruments are basically objective in nature and standardized, and they have been empirically validated and determined reliable. They are available from Pennant Educational Materials, 4680 Alvarado Canyon Road, San Diego, California 92120.

The Human Values Series was systematically field tested during the formative stages. The results of the prepublication research showed, according to the developers, that students develop "value-conscious study habits which carry over into all types of reading materials." The theory of value development from the approach to values education reflected in this series has also been researched in a number of doctoral dissertations at the U. S. International University. Results produced in such research, however, are mixed. See Simpson (1973, pp. 227-29) for an annotated bibliography of this research.

Materials Using Moral Development Approach

TITLE: *Comparative Political Systems: An Inquiry Approach*
CURRICULUM: Holt Social Studies Curriculum
DEVELOPERS: Edwin Fenton, Anthony N. Penna, and Mindella Schultz
PUBLISHER: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 383 Madison Avenue, New York, New York 10017
DATE: 1973
GRADE LEVEL: 9 (10-12)
MATERIALS AND COST: Student text, $3.99; teacher's guide, $2.31; and an audiovisual kit that includes seven filmstrips (four with sound-records), class handouts, *Student Activity Book, Book of Readings,* and tests, $156.00. Some components of the kit may be purchased separately.

DESCRIPTION: This is the political science component of the Holt Social Studies Curriculum. This revised version incorporates dilemmas of the moral development approach as well as some clarification questions.

Rationale and Objectives

The rationale for the entire revised Holt Curriculum, but not for *Political Systems*, is presented in the teacher's guide. Although the terms *values* and *valuing* are not specifically defined, one of the stated objectives of the new Holt Curriculum is the clarification of student values. The authors state that they do not attempt to instill a particular set of values in students but to help students think for themselves and reflect upon the validity of the values they have learned at home or in the community. This program emphasizes rational processes; the Kohlberg theory of moral development is outlined in the teacher's guide and advanced as the approach to values education incorporated in the materials. Specific, but not behavioral, objectives are provided for each lesson in *Comparative Political Systems*. Some of the valuing objectives, for example, are to help students "consider under what conditions, if any, private citizens and public officials should oppose the policies of the President," "clarify feelings about the most appropriate uses of the nation's two million acres of nationally owned lands," and "begin to consider the implications of a power elite for the maintenance of a democratic society."

Preconditions and Usability

These materials have been designed for above-average or able ninth grade students. They could also be used with students in grades 10 through 12. Some of the components may be purchased and used separately, but the developers stress a sequential use of this and other components of the Holt Curriculum. The materials have been designed for a one-semester course.

Comparative Political Systems is appropriate for use in traditional and progressive school settings. Although the reading levels have been lowered from the first edition, learners need well-developed reading skills to benefit from these materials.

Various ethnic and racial groups and both sexes are treated fairly. Guidelines for teaching a lesson in *Comparative Political Systems* are provided in the teacher's guide. More help in implementing the values component, however, is needed to enable teachers to integrate moral development into the other goals of the materials.

Content

Values education is one of several important emphases in these materials. The others are developing constructive attitudes toward learning, positive self-concepts, various learning skills, and analytical concepts. The major concepts include decision making, political institutions, political culture, and citizenship. Value issues raised are usually in relation to these and other social topics rather than to personal problems.

Procedures and Activities

The values component of *Comparative Political Systems* is embodied in the procedures and activities in two ways. First, value-clarifying questions have been added to the margin of the student text. Examples of these questions are: "What would you do in that situation?" "How do you feel about that?" "Would you prefer a judge or jury? Why?" Second, six ditto masters in the book of class handouts contain moral dilemmas associated both with the subject being studied in the text and with a contemporary value problem. Reflecting the moral development approach to values education, there are suggestions in the detailed lesson plans of the teacher's guide to help teachers present alternative value positions at various stages of Kohlberg's moral reasoning scheme.

The moral dilemmas include a short reading describing someone in the middle of a value conflict. This is followed by three or four questions that probe the problem of the character and ask what you would do and why. The particular dilemmas include the question of publishing the Pentagon

papers (Mr. Ellsberg's Dilemma), loyalty to family or the party (Olga's Dilemma), and obeying rules or conscience (Liz's Dilemma).

Activities such as these frequently encourage learners to articulate their value positions to themselves and other students and to provide reasons for those positions. Sometimes they analyze value issues. Rarely are students asked to examine their own behavior patterns, make decisions based on their values, or act on their values. Reading, writing, and discussion are the primary activities. The new activity books also involve surveys, interviews, simulations, and skits.

Evaluation

This version of *Comparative Political Systems* contains tests to evaluate student achievement on a diagnostic and final assessment basis. Only a few, however, pertain to the affective domain, and none help teachers determine student growth along Kohlberg's stages of moral reasoning. There are instruments available to do this (Rest 1972; Porter and Taylor 1972). See the next analysis summary for a discussion of these instruments.

Although the original edition has been field-tested, this new one with the values component added has not. Moreover, moral dilemmas were used prior to the values education project at Carnegie-Mellon (discussed in Chapter 1 under *Moral Development*).

TITLE: *First Things: Values*
CURRICULUM: First Things
CONSULTANTS: Lawrence Kohlberg and Robert Selman
PUBLISHER: Guidance Associates, Pleasantville, New York 10570
DATE: 1972
GRADE LEVEL: K-3 (4-6)
MATERIALS AND COST: Six audiovisual kits, each containing color filmstrips, record or cassette tape, and teacher's guide--$19.50 per kit (with record), $21.50 per kit (with cassette tape). Five kits are classroom materials, one is a teacher training kit.

DESCRIPTION: This is a series of six sound filmstrips designed to help elementary students reason about moral issues. The kits are entitled: *The Trouble with Truth; That's No Fair!; You Promised!; But It Isn't Your...; What Do You Do about Rules?;* and *A Strategy for Teaching Values.*

Rationale and Objectives

The rationale for *First Things: Values* is clearly stated in the teacher's guide. The developers explicitly acknowledge their support for the moral development approach to values education. The rationale is based on Kohlberg's research on moral development, and it clearly emphasizes rational-analytical processes and student discussion. Nonrational ways of valuing and acting on one's values are not stressed. A belief in the relationship between moral reasoning and moral behavior is, however, affirmed. The definition or meaning of the terms *values* and *valuing* are not discussed or implied in these materials. Rather, *moral reasoning* and *moral development* are the central terms used in the teacher's guide. Specific objectives are not provided for the five sets of filmstrips for classroom use. Each teacher's guide merely states the general objective of the materials as stimulating student discussion and moral development.

Preconditions and Usability

The materials are designed for children in kindergarten through grade 3. They could also be used successfully in grades 4 through 6. Each of the six audiovisual kits may be purchased separately. They can be used in any sequence. The filmstrips and activities may be used together as a unit on values or as a supplement to existing curriculum.

Because observing the filmstrips and discussing the dilemmas are the primary activities, students need little or no basic reading skills with *First Things: Values.* The filmstrips realistically depict children of various ages, from several ethnic and racial backgrounds, and of both sexes. The materials may, therefore, be used with a variety of groups in any school or nonschool setting. Knowledge of Kohlberg's theory and stages of moral development and skill in applying those ideas with students are fundamental prerequisites for successful use of these materials. One

of the six kits, *A Strategy for Teaching Values*, attempts to provide this background. Experience has shown, however, that more than this teacher training component is needed to help teachers skillfully apply Kohlberg's concepts. Recently the Values Education Project at the Social Studies Curriculum Center at Carnegie-Mellon University developed *A Training Manual for Teaching Moral Dilemmas*. Workshops have also been conducted by Barry Beyer of that institution. Currently being revised, this work might help to fulfill the need for a useful mechanism for training teachers in the moral development approach to values education. Two other abilities required of teachers for effective use of these materials are facilitating and coordinating small group discussions and building and maintaining a group climate of openness, trust, and understanding.

Content

Values education is the major focus of these materials. The focus is on the process of moral reasoning and development into higher stages rather than on particular value positions. The materials present moral conflict situations appropriate for primary-age children and encourage students to formulate, examine, and discuss personal solutions to these dilemmas. Broad social value issues are not used. In Part II of *The Trouble With Trust*, for instance, Debbie can have her birthday visit to the fair if she says she is a year younger. "Should she lie or tell the truth?" is the dilemma students consider. Other kits deal with the concepts of promises, fairness, rules, and property rights.

Procedures and Activities

The conflict situations are dramatized on the sound filmstrips as moral dilemma episodes. Each unit or kit presents two dilemmas. The first is presented with several alternative solutions. The second merely presents the dilemma and encourages students to develop and support their own choices. Teaching procedures and suggested learning activities are specifically outlined in the teacher's guide provided with each kit. They clearly reflect a moral development approach to values education. The teaching procedures include reviewing the filmstrip, modeling the discussion, dividing the class into small discussion groups, keeping the

discussions balanced with appropriate questions (which are provided in the guide), using additional questions to broaden the scope of the discussion. Follow-up activities such as debates, role playing, mock courts, and analogous dilemmas are also suggested. The activities frequently stimulate students to articulate and share their value positions and reasons to themselves and others. The analytical skills of formulating and testing alternative solutions are also stressed. Sometimes children examine their own behavior patterns, but rarely are they asked to act on their decisions or values. The primary emphasis of the activities is on discussion analysis, self-awareness, and listening and attending skills. Sometimes opportunities to develop criteria development and skills of application, decision making, and conflict resolution are provided. Students' rights to privacy are not protected by any "I pass" procedure. It is hoped that the small group structure will encourage openness.

Evaluation

The materials do not provide any help with evaluating student progress. There are, however, several instruments available from other sources to measure growth in terms of Kohlberg's stages of moral development. Two of the more simple tests are Rest's *Opinions About Social Problems* (1972) and a guide produced by The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education called *How to Assess the Moral Reasoning of Students* (Porter and Taylor 1972). The former test presents six Kohlberg-type moral dilemmas, each followed by 12 statements reflecting various levels of moral reasoning on that dilemma. Students rank the statements in terms of their importance. The latter instrument also uses some of Kohlberg's original dilemmas. The developers of this guide recommend that the dilemma and student reactions be administered and solicited orally for elementary students and in written form for high school students. A detailed explanation of how to score these essay responses is provided. Kohlberg's questionnaire has been used extensively in his empirical research and has proven to be reasonably reliable and valid. Although some psychologists question the validity of Kohlberg's research, his evaluation instrument has been more extensively and empirically verified than most values education tests. The major problem is the difficulty in administering and interpreting the tests.

First Things: Values has been field-tested in six second-grade classroom. Results indicated that after using the materials twice a week for five weeks, those students reached a higher level of moral reasoning than students who had not used the materials. The evaluators do not feel that this pilot study was conclusive, and they plan to do further evaluation in 1975. In addition to this study, informal teacher reports have indicated that students using these materials have become "more socially aware of their ideas and better able to integrate other's thinking and valuing with their own."

Materials Using Analysis Approach

TITLE: *Analysis of Public Issues Program*

DEVELOPERS: James P. Shaver and A. Guy Larkins

PUBLISHER: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1 Beacon Street, Boston, Massachusetts 02107

DATE: 1973

GRADE LEVEL: 9-12

MATERIALS AND COST: Student text, $4.80; instructor's manual (419 pp.), $8.97; audiovisual kit, $64.50; duplicating masters, $27.00; problem booklets, $1.65 each.

DESCRIPTION: These multimedia materials include an audiovisual kit (containing 5 cassettes, 3 filmstrips, and 49 overhead visuals), student text, duplicating masters, instructor's manual, and problem booklets, which cover such topics as The Police and Black America; Race Riots in the Sixties; Women: The Majority-Minority; Students' Rights: Issues in Constitutional Freedoms; and Progress and the Environment: Air and Water Pollution. The program primarily consists of a set of concepts necessasry for analyzing public issues plus the materials and strategies for teaching them.

Rationale and Objectives

The instructor's manual for the analysis of public issues program contains a detailed rationale. The materials "are based on the premise that the central focus of teaching reflective thinking in the social studies should be the analysis of public issues." Furthermore, this program is "focused on public issues and...based on the assumption that

public issues are basically ethical issues--that is, that they involve questions about right or proper aims and actions." As a result, the materials involve values education as a central part of the curriculum. They also reflect the analysis approach: rational-analytical processes are emphasized. The rationale defines *values* as "standards or principales of worth--that is, our ideas as to what is good, worthwhile, desirable." The meaning of the term *valuing*, however, is only impled. The developers explicitly acknowledge their own biases and position on values education.

The objectives for different activities are stated in behavioral terms and are directly linked to the mode of evaluation. For the first concept developed in the activities, the objectives state that the student, when given examples, "should be able to distinguish between ethical and non-ethical, serious and less serious, and private and public issues and give reasons for his distinctions."

Preconditions and Usability

Designed for use by both junior high and senior high students, the analysis of public issues program can be purchased in components and used in any sequence. The program shows no sign of racial or sex-role discrimination and could be used as a complete course of instruction.

Traditional and progressive school settings are appropriate for using the materials. Well-developed reading skills are needed by learners because value analysis procedures are mostly stimulated by a set of readings. No other preconditions are necessary.

Content

The main focus of the materials is on social issues and community problems. Students study such things as teacher walkouts, tax reform, political morality, housing, women's rights, segregation, and mass communication. Emphasizing the process of valuing rather than value content, the activities present value dilemma episodes, case studies, and data collection instruments for students to gather their own information. One activity, for example, discusses the Chicago Seven trial; another, the Vietnam war; and another, Martin Luther King.

Procedures and Activities

Specifically outlined by the developers, the procedures and activities basically reflect the analysis approach to values education with some

clarification. Mostly, learners are encouraged to develop analytic skills. For instance, when working with the problem booklet "Women: The Majority-Minority," students, after reading an excerpt, are asked such questions as "Research has shown that individuals who are going to 'hit the top' in their professions usually do so when they are about thirty years of age. Might the Swedish system discourage professional accomplishments, especially of males, if they were expected to be at home more to help with child-rearing?"

Students at times are also asked to understand and provide reasons for their own value positions, as well as to share them with others and make decisions based on such values. Rarely are students encouraged to examine their own personal behavior patterns or act upon their value-based decisions. Protecting learner's rights is not an issue with this program; its focus is on learning and applying values analysis procedures. When a learner is asked for a personal view, it is for the purpose of developing an analytical procedure rather than for encouraging the learner to reveal deeply felt values.

Activities mainly require students to read, write, and discuss, and to develop discussion analysis skills along with criteria development skills. Sometimes learners also have chances to develop self-awareness and listening and conflict resolution skills. Rarely do student utilize empathic and supportive skills.

Evaluation

The program specifies evaluation procedures. Duplicating masters of tests accompany the materials. The tests are basically objective in nature, providing for multiple choice and true or false responses. No evaluation data covering the program itself is available yet.

TITLE: *People in Neighborhoods*
CURRICULUM: Taba Program in Social Science
DEVELOPERS: Mary C. Durkin and Anthony H. McNaughton
PUBLISHER: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 2725 Sand Hill Rd., Menlo Park, California 94025
DATE: 1972
GRADE LEVEL: 2
MATERIALS AND COST: Student book, $3.21; teacher's edition (approximately

200 pp,), $3.96.

DESCRIPTION: The student textbook contains activities that expose children to three common types of neighborhoods in the United States--an inner city neighborhood, a residential neighborhood, and a small town or village neighborhood--in order for them to learn about the differences and likenesses of communities and their residents. The teacher's edition provides an introduction to the Taba Program and gives suggestions for teaching the units in the second-grade student book.

Rationale and Objectives

The teacher's edition of *People in Neighborhoods* contains an extensive and detailed rationale for the Taba Program, explaining its objectives, content, teaching strategies, and evaluation procedures. *Values* are defined as "those objects, ideas, or institutions which a society or an individual considers important." The rationale, however, does not define or consider the term *valuing*. The developers' own biases toward values education are implied in descriptions of the teaching strategies for analyzing values. The authors believe, however, that "values develop through both nonrational and rational processes." Promoting analysis as the approach to values education, the rationale emphasizes rational-analytical processes of recalling, identifying, inferring, hypothesizing, and comparing.

The objectives for each of the four units as well as for the entire Taba Program are specifically stated in behaviorla terms. The objective--"relating one's values to those of others"--is, for instance, stated: "Given information on the values of people in two or more cultures other than his own, the student describes differences and similarities in the values withi and among cultures and their relationships to his own values."

Preconditions and Usability

Designed for second-grade students, the program must be used in the designated sequence. Its four units compose an entire year's course.

Both tradition·l and progressive school settings are appropriate for using *People in Neighborhoods*. Learners need well-developed skills. No other preconditions, however, are necessary. Although special teacher

training is not necessary, instructors might read Hilda Taba's book *A Teacher's Handbook to Elementary Social Studies: An Inductive Approach* (Taba *et al.* 1971). The program gives no evidence of racial discrimination. Persons from several socioeconomic, ethnic, and racial heritages are depicted in the book. Furthermore, sex roles are not stereotyped; for example, both fathers and mothers buy the bakery goods and prepare the food.

Content

Values education is one of several important concerns of this program. Other concerns include developing thinking skills as well as academic and social skills. The units present problems of living in a neighborhood. They do not, however, focus on social issues such as pollution or prejudice, nor do they focus on examining personal value issues or problems. Questions interspersed throughout each unit in the student text ask learners about the neighborhood and the people depicted in each story. For example, in the story "Frankfort and Chicago," students work with such questions as "If a new airport were built near Frankfort, what do you think would happen? What would happen to Mr. Wald's business?" For the same story, a map is also shown with the following questions: "If a man lived in Frankfort and worked in Chicago, what highways might he take to work?" In the teacher's edition, suggestions are given for helping students think about their own experiences in and around their neighborhoods. The teacher is encouraged to ask questions such as: "Your mother has told you to go out to play. What kind of picture do you see in your mind? Where do you usually go? What do you usually do?"

The units mostly emphasize the process of making value choices rather than the content of values. Stories of children in various neighborhoods are presented. Most of the stories are descriptive; a few imply morals.

Procedures and Activities

Values analysis is the dominant values education approach reflected in the actual procedures and activities. Some clarification is also used. Students are encouraged to identify and empathize as well as analyze and

compare reasons. They are not asked, however, to establish interrelationships among their values. Procedures and activities for using the textbook are specifically outlined in the teacher's edition. Activities are provided to help students formulate hypotheses, ask questions, organize information, develop a set of skills, attain concepts, develop generalizations and apply them, and understand the cause and effect of relationships. Furthermore, the activities frequently encourage learners to understand their own values, to provide reasons, and to infer values from the reasons and the behavior of others.

The procedures and activities protect the rights of learners by encouraging all learners to understand and empathize with persons having different values. This is accomplished by including a strategy for developing and exploring feelings for the people presented in each story. Students are generally asked to read, write, and discuss. Optional activities recommended include films for students to see. Frequently, the stories provide experience for developing self-awareness and empathic skills. Sometimes students have the opportunities to develop skills in listening and attending, discussion analysis, and criteria development and application. Seldom do students use support skills, decision making, conflict-resolution, and group work skills.

Evaluation

The teacher's edition specifies evaluation procedures, provides for periodic diagnostic evaluation of student products, and discusses the criteria used to evaluate them. Generally, the evaluation procedures apply to class discussions and written assignments. Students are encouraged to write short essays or perform written exercises. In addition, nonwritten responses and discussion are encouraged in the evaluation procedures. The evaluation instruments provided are basically objective in nature.

People in Neighborhoods was systematically field tested in the formative stages and is subject to periodic evaluation and revision by the developers. There is a final report on the book (Wallen *et al.* 1969).

TITLE: *Sources of Identity*

CURRICULUM: The Social Sciences: Concepts and Values

DEVELOPER: Paul F. Brandwein

PUBLISHER: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 757 Third Avenue, New York, York 10017

DATE: 1972

GRADE LEVEL: 7 (8-9)

MATERIALS AND COST: Student text (hardbound), $6.96; single unit books (paperbound), $1.59; teacher's guide (paperbound, 177 pp.), $1.95.

DESCRIPTION: The six units in the student text investigate people from six different points of view: as individuals, group members, participants in a culture, policy makers, a part of the environment, and producers. The accompanying teacher's guide provides principles and practices for teaching the student text.

Rationale and Objectives

The rationale for this student text is clearly stated in the introduction to the teacher's guide. *Social Sciences: Concepts and Values* is "designed to help the teacher and the student find out what information, concepts, and values the student already holds, and to help the student develop in three ways." Students are encouraged to develop the following abilities: to recognize and observe concrete evidence related to a concept, to empathize with other people, and to recognize the involvement and obligation of individuals to each other in everyday human situations. The terms *values* and *valuing* are not specifically defined, but their meaning is implied. The developer's own biases and position on values education are difficult to ascertain. An analysis approach to values education is inferred from various statements in the rationale--statements such as "each student will develop in his ability to empathize with other people, observing their behavior as evidence of their concepts and values, and to make such observations from different perspectives." The rationale emphasizes a rational inquiry approach, and the treatment of values in all units seems to exemplify the approach. Students are

encouraged to reach various goals, for example, to be able to form and use concepts that fit the real world and to be able to make increasingly humane decisions.

The objectives for different activities are specifically stated in behavioral terms and are directly linked to the mode of evaluation. Valuing, according to the objectives, is emphasized mainly as a cognitive function. In one activity, for example, students will be given an example of a value and are then asked to "make inferences about the larger value system represented and cite other evidence in (their) experience to justify (their) inferences."

Preconditions and Usability

The materials are designed for seventh-grade students and can be used in either a traditional or a progressive school setting. The six units can be purchased separately and used in any sequence. Such applications, however, might interfere with the carefully articulated sequence developed by the author. Teaching all six units could make an extra course. Students using the materials need well-developed reading skills. Otherwise, no particular preconditions are necessary.

Content

In *Sources of Identity*, teaching values is an important concern: clarifying personal values, however, is only a peripheral concern. The units mainly emphasize social issues and community problems often faced by oneself and others. Students are encouraged to infer, discuss, and compare the values of others. A few chapters include questions helping students probe into their own identities and values. The chapters basically focus on the content of values and present readings about other cultures as well as readings about other value-laden situations in which students can understand their own personalities. Colorful pictures help illustrate each chapter.

The materials give no evidence of racial stereotyping. Some chapters bring attention to different minority groups and their struggles for identity, freedom, and equality. Indirectly, however, the materials indicate sex-role stereotyping. Each unit title uses man as the generic

term for people. The third unit, for example, is entitled *Man in Culture* and the sixth, *Man in His Environment*. In addition, the photographs at times reinforce stereotypic sex roles: women are depicted in traditional roles--secretaries, nurses, teachers, and textile workers; men are depicted as mountain climbers, foresters, scientists, and anthropologists. In contrast to this indirect stereotyping, one chapter briefly discusses sex roles--how they are determined, how they have changed, and how they might change in the future. In addition, the history of American women's struggle for emancipation is traced.

Procedures and Activities

Analysis is the values education approach reflected in the materials. As specifically outlined by the developers, the procedures and activities frequently encourage learners to analyze value issues. For example, in one activity students are asked to analyze some posters and identify the subcultures depicted, and their contributions to the common culture. The class is then encouraged to discuss whether the contributions of the subcultures are valuable to the common culture and to provide reasons for their positions. Students are also asked to decide whether the poster accurately represents the subculture.

Some of the activities encourage learners to understand their own value positions, provide reasons, and share them with others. Seldom are learners asked to examine their own personal behavior patterns, make decisions based on their values, or act on their decisions. The activities and procedures do not take into account the rights of learners; the teacher will need to protect learners' rights of privacy. The activities for students include reading, writing, discussing, and role playing at times, as alternatives to obtaining concepts by reading.

The skills most frequently stressed in the textbook are empathic skills. Sometimes learners use discussion analysis skills, criteria development and application skills, and group work skills such as forming task forces, brainstorming, and discussing ideas.

Evaluation

The teacher's guide provides specific guidelines and criteria for evaluating student work and progress. These guidelines are good for diagnosing individual development, but they do not apply to group comparison. Moreover, tests accompany the criteria. The evaluation basically focuses on the work students do in the course. Such work includes essays, short answers to questions, research reports, and other learner products such as logs and group projects. In addition to written work, evaluation can be applied to student oral presentations or discussion. The guidelines are basically objective in nature and evaluate student work according to three categories: satisfactory, unsatisfactory, and outstanding. The developer has not empirically validated the evaluation criteria or determined them to be reliable. Furthermore, data on learner verification are not available.

Materials Using Clarification Approach

TITLE: *Making Value Judgments: Decisions for Today*

DEVELOPER: Carl A. Elder

PUBLISHER: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1300 Alum Creek Drive, Columbus, Ohio 43216

DATE: 1972

GRADE LEVEL: 7-12

MATERIALS AND COST: Teacher's manual, 41 pp., $3.00; student book, 194 pp., $1.50.

DESCRIPTION: The student book and the accompanying teacher's manual are designed to stimulate classroom discussion and student inquiry into the critical issues facing today's young people: drugs, crime, prejudice, careers, alcohol, goals, pollution, and personal relationships.

Rationale and Objectives

The rationale for *Making Value Judgments: Decisions for Today* is clearly stated. According to the teacher's manual, the purpose of the student book is "to help young people make sound value judgments by providing them with guidelines to help them clarify their values and to make

decisions." The author elaborates on this purpose: "it is not the aim of the book to tell teenagers what they must value or to set moral standards for them to follow." Utilizing a clarification approach to values education, the materials emphasize rational-analytical processes and personal revelation. In addition, the activities encourage students to act upon their values.

Defining his terms, the author explains that a *value* is something desirable or having worth and that *valuing* means rating something highly. He also explains his own biases and position toward the teaching of values. Whereas the rationale, the terms, and the biases of the materials are clearly defined in the teacher's manual, the specific objectives for the different sections are only vaguely mentioned.

Preconditions and Usability

All of the sections are contained in the student book and can be used in any sequence. The materials can compose a unit of several sessions or an entire course for junior high, middle school, and high school students. *Making Value Judgments* shows no evidence of prejudice or discrimination. The author has fairly used both sexes and various races and religions for the examples in the book.

The materials are well suited for both traditional and progressive school settings. The sections can be used most effectively under the following conditions: learners having well-developed reading skills; teachers receiving special training; a classroom climate encouraging openness, trust, and understanding; a school supporting and a community accepting learners who are clarifying personal values on deeply felt or controversial issues.

Content

The major focus of the book's 14 chapters is values education, and value content and the process of valuing are emphasized equally. Basically, the units require that students investigate social issues, such as drugs or pollution, from a personal viewpoint. In Chapter 6, for example, students work with the question, "Do I want to use drugs?" The question they confront in Chapter 11 is "What should I do about